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ABSTRACT

GRADES OR AGES: Junior high school (grades 7, 8 and 9). SUBJECT MATTER: Language arts; composition and language study. ORGANIZATION AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: The guide has three main sections: 1) oral composition--individual preservations and group activities; 2) language study--the nature of language, varieties of language, history of the English language, kernel sentences, and transforms; and 3) written composition--word rhetoric, sentence rhetoric, basic thought processes, principles of rhetoric, and assignments. The material in each section is sequential and not defined specifically in terms of grades. The guide is lithographed, with perfect binding and a soft cover. OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES: Objectives are not listed separately, but are an integral part of the introductory material for each unit. Activities are given in detail for each unit. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: Materials needed are listed at the end of each unit and include records, films, and books for teachers and students. STUDENT ASSESSMENT: No specific provision is made for evalution. (MBM)

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# LANGUAGE ARTS GUIDE

# COMPOSITION AND LANGUAGE STUDY

Junior High School

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# FOREWORD AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Language Arts Guide, Composition and Language Study, Junior High School, has been prepared to assist teachers in planning a sequential program in composition and language study. This guide includes material which was developed during a 1965 summer inservice program, directed by Dr. Dwight L. Burton, Professor of English and Head, English Education Department, Florida State University, and attended by English department representatives from Dade County junior high schools. Suggestions were also submitted by classroom teachers who used and evaluated the tentative guide during three school terms.

Sincere appreciation is extended to all who shared the responsibility of developing this guide. Additional consultants who assisted in the inservice program and in the development of the material were:

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Special recognition is given to the members of the steering committee for compiling, writing, and editing explanatory material and classroom activities. The committee includes:

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Special recognition is given also to Mrs. Pearl W. Thomas, a member of the steering committee and now a teacher at Miami Springs Senior High School, and Mrs. Catherine Thompson, English teacher, Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, who met during the summer of 1968 to incorporate suggestions for revision which had been offered.

As teachers use these materials, they should offer suggestions for further revision of the guide. Such suggestions should be forwarded to the office of the Supervisor of Language Arts.

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Angeline S. Welty
Supervisor of Language Arts

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# STATEMENT OF PURPOSE AND DIRECTION

The purpose of the guide is to provide ideas and activities for the three areas of language arts: oral and written composition and language study. The objectives in both oral and written composition include more than just practice in the mechanics of the language. The process of shaping the raw material, the thoughts and feelings, before writing takes place may well be more important than the ultimate product. A further dimension of the guide is a series of units on language study. The purpose of these is to provide the student with information and further understanding about the nature and scope of his language.

No attempt is made to provide a program of instruction and activities for other important areas of the language arts such as literature, mechanics, spelling, and vocabulary. The material in each section is sequential and not defined specifically in terms of grades 7, 8, 9. English departments in the individual junior high schools may determine the best sequence and pace for students in their schools according to the student's level of achievement and the organization of the school.

This is a general program that can be implemented with students of varying abilities, and the teacher should use his initiative in adapting the material to meet the needs of his students. In the area of oral composition the guide includes activities for individual and group presentation. Stress is placed on integrating oral composition with literature, written composition, and language. Written composition presents sequential practices in word and sentence rhetoric, basic thought processes, and the application of rhetorical principles. Language study is composed of five phases, three dealing with transformational grammar.

## GUIDELINES FOR THE TEACHER

I. An effective writing program is one in which students have frequent practice in writing.

   A. While weekly writing is desirable, consideration of paper load and class size encourage the one-sentence and the one-paragraph composition as well as some longer assignments. (There can be great benefit at any grade level in the discipline of writing the short theme.)

   B. Sequence in the writing program should be carefully planned and standards for each grade should not be determined on the basis of length of papers.

   C. Experience in investigative procedures and research techniques should be provided at all levels, but such projects should not result in lengthy or formal research papers.

   D. Throughout the year a considerable proportion of the writing should be done in class under the direct supervision of the teacher.

II. Members of English departments within the various schools should cooperate in improving and standardizing their methods of evaluating themes. As class-load reductions recommended by the Quality Education Report are implemented, teachers will have increased opportunities for more effective evaluation of written work.

   A. In marking compositions teachers should concentrate on major weaknesses of organization, thought content, and logical development, rather than emphasize mechanical errors alone. Over-marking can defeat the purpose of constructive evaluation. Problems in sentence construction, usage, spelling, and punctuation might well be attacked one or two at a time rather than en masse, and two grades - one for content and one for mechanics - can provide a successful way of evaluating compositions.

   B. Experience shows that evaluation is especially beneficial when teachers can confer individually with students regarding composition problems.

   C. The pupil's individual folder should contain representative samples of his writing over the year along with some evidence of revision and self-evaluation.

# ORAL COMPOSITION

## Acknowledgments

In preparing the material on oral composition, the editors are especially indebted to the following works:

Hook, J. N., *The Teaching of High School English*, New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1965.

Loban, Walter, et al., *Teaching Language and Literature*, New York, Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961.

..... Project English Materials, Curriculum Center in English, University of Minnesota.

Veidemanis, Gladys, "A Curriculum View of Classroom Discussion," *The English Journal*, January, 1962.

# INTRODUCTION

Oral composition, the most widely used form of communication, should be an integral part of the entire language arts program. Instruction in oral composition should not attempt to delve too deeply into the techniques of public speaking but should attempt to show students the rhetoric of communication. The principles of rhetoric are discussed under "Written Composition" in this guide.

## Components of Oral Composition

Composition whether oral or written demands these three components:

1. Clear thinking
2. Desire to communicate
3. Control of skills

Oral composition helps a student:

1. Communicate with those around him in a carefully conceived, well-organized manner.
2. Increase his power of critical thinking.
3. Accept responsibility for his remarks.
4. Speak with poise and good enunciation.
5. Adapt his style to each audience.
6. Become more aware of the power of words.
7. Pick topics suited to an allotted time.
8. Develop self-confidence.

# INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATIONS

## EXACT READING

This is the initial stage in developing poise and self-confidence in the shy or reluctant student. To aid in overcoming reticence the student may read:

### BRIEF NEWS ARTICLES

1. Short items relating to thematic units such as "Man and Nature," "Courage," and "Mirrors"
2. Examples of descriptive writing in the news media
3. Items which suggest to the student a plot for a short story

### STUDENT COMPOSITION

1. His own writing (may be tape-recorded)
2. Classmate's writing
3. Articles from school paper

## TELLING ANECDOTES

Encouraging students to relate curious incidents in which they have been involved individually or as a group will provide background material for devising the anecdote. The anecdote is essentially humorous and exaggerates basic fact or may deviate from the truth.

### PERSONAL EXPERIENCES

1. Humorous incidents
2. Exaggerated facts presented by another student to intensify the humor

### OTHER SOURCES

1. Folklore
2. Newspaper feature articles

## ORAL READING OF LITERATURE

Reading aloud provides opportunities for interpretation and analysis of literature. Usually initial silent reading will be necessary for effective oral reading.

### THE SHORT STORY

1. Variations of tone and meaning
    a. One paragraph per student as in James Thurber's "The Night the Bed Fell"
    b. Several paragraphs per student as in Jesse Stuart's "The Thread That Runs So True"

2. Change in emphasis in dialogue
    a. Adverbs with "said"
        "No, sir," Scott said firmly.
        "Don't mind me," I told him weakly.
    b. Synonyms for "said"
        "Oh nuts!" Jerry muttered.
        "Got any money?" he asked hopefully.

Some suggested stories: E.C. Jones' "The Surprise of His Life," Franklin M. Rick's "The Diving Fool," or Selma Lagerlof's "The Silver Mine."

## DRAMA

1. Appreciation for word power
2. Stage directions as a highlight to interpretation and analysis

"The Glorious Whitewasher," pp. 351-366 in Adventures for Readers Book II:

Sid (worried). Tom! Here, Tom, Tom! What's the matter? (He shakes Tom slightly.)
Tom (very indignant for a dying man). "But, Auntie -- it hurts so much I..."

"The Valiant," pp. 465-485 in Adventures in Reading:

Warden (His tone is vaguely resentful, as though the weather had added a needless fraction to his impatience.) "It would rain tonight."
Dyke (His voice is very faintly sarcastic.) "Why, I mean that I'm just as much a condemned prisoner here as when I was in my cell..."

## POETRY

1. Choral reading to reassure reluctant individuals
    a. Arrangement of class into groups
    b. Selection of poetry suited to maturity of group

c. Practice of:
   - refrains and choruses
     - "Oh! Captain, My Captain"
   - dialogue and antiphonal
     - "City Streets and Country Roads"
   - line-a-child or line-a-group
     - "Abraham Lincoln"
   - solos interspersed with group reading
     - "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening"
   - unison
     - "Sea Fever"

   See the following:
   - Alfred Noyes, "The Highwayman," pp. 239-243 in Adventures for Reading Book I
   - James Whitcomb Riley, "Little Orphant Annie," pp. 262-263 in Adventures for Readers Book I
   - Jessamyn West, "Song of the Settlers," pp. 122-123 in Adventures Ahead
   - Richard Armour, "Watch-dog," p. 93 in Adventures for Readers Book II
   - Phyllis McGinley, "Hi, Rover," p. 94 in Adventures for Readers Book II
   - Elizabeth Coatsworth, "Daniel Webster's Horse," pp. 108-110 in Adventures for You
   - Lew Sarett, "Four Little Foxes," p. 268 in Adventures in Reading
   - John Masefield, "Sea Fever," p. 193 in Adventures in Reading
   - James Weldon Johnston, "The Creation," pp. 534-538 in Adventures for Today

2. Sensitivity to kinds of experiences
   a. Simplicity and directness of language
   b. Singleness of observation

   See the following:
   - Thomas Hood, "Past and Present," p. 70 in Adventures for Readers Book I

C. S. Jennison, "I'm Apt to be Surly Getting up Early," p. 102 in *Adventures for Readers* Book I
Carl Sandburg, "Arithmetic," p. 52 in *Adventures for Readers* Book II
Nathalie Crane, "The Janitor's Boy," p. 33 in *Adventures for Readers* Book II
Stephen V. Benet, "Portrait of a Boy," p. 270 in *Adventures in Reading*
Amy Lowell, "Night Clouds," p. 271 in *Adventures in Reading*

### GIVING REPORTS

Reporting should grow from the content of classwork and should not be assigned merely for the sake of having reports. Frequent reports assigned to each member of the class result in loss of time and in boredom. The first requisite is a reason for giving the report, such as the need for additional information for carrying out a group project or the need to find entertaining episodes to add to a story or play. Students report on what they have read, studied, heard, or seen by giving:

### DIRECTIONS

1. Graphic choice of words
2. Limiting to specifics
   Exercise: Give students an example of following directions. Have one student read the directions and another act them out. Then have students follow one another's directions. Some suggested topics are *tying a shoe*, *making a telephone call*, *riding a bicycle*, *scrambling an egg*, and *riding a surfboard*.

### EXPLANATIONS

1. Definition of terms - good football team - define "good"
2. General category
3. Distinguishing characteristics
   Exercise: Prepare slips of paper with names of things (nail, lipstick, surfboard, etc.) Have a student draw a slip and give a definition of the item. The class will react to the accuracy of the definition.

### BOOK REPORTS

(See State Guide, Bulletin 35 A, 1962)
1. Dramatization of selected dialogue
2. Sales talk
3. Diary of main character
4. Conversation in paired groups
5. Well planned book review for the able student
6. Discussion of major conflict and factors directing the outcome

### LONGER REPORTS

1. Rehearsal in pairs
2. Practice before small group
3. Tape recording and evaluating before final presentation to class

### PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

Since persuasion is difficult to achieve, it must be planned. Persuasion attempts to change a person's thoughts or actions. To bring about change one must first understand the other's motives for listening and adjust accordingly. In this way persuasion is directed to a predetermined end.

### STRUCTURE OF PERSUASION

1. Claim
2. Evidence
3. Line of reasoning
    a. Cause - effect
    b. Comparison - contrast
    c. Analogy

### ELEMENTS THAT PERSUADE

1. Confidence in the speaker (impression conveyed)
    a. Appearance
    b. Sincerity
    c. Attitude (toward audience, self, and subject)
    d. Intelligence or knowledge of subject matter
    e. Voice
    f. Gestures
2. Ethical appeal to emotion

This paragraph, printed in Red China, attacking the U.S. illustrates the negative use of emotion. Notice the snarling language:

> "The United States.... is the most arrogant aggressor ever known in history, the most ferocious enemy of world peace and the main prop of all forces of reaction in the world. All countries and people wanting to defend world peace must direct the sharp edge of their struggle against United States imperialism."

3. Logical reasoning

DEVICES USED IN PERSUASION

(From the Institute of Propaganda - emotional appeal)

1. Glittering generalities (Fat people are jolly.)
2. Name calling (apple polisher, rabble rouser)
3. Transfer (using something revered or respected)
4. Testimonial (respected person endorses product)
5. Plain folks ("of the people")
6. Card stacking (selection of facts either all good or all falsehoods to promote or discredit)
7. Band wagon ("Everybody's doing it.")

PERSUASION IN PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

(This may be used as an introduction to discussion.)

1. Joining gangs
2. Borrowing homework, money, etc.
3. Conforming to standards of dress
4. Participating in leadership activities

PERSUASION IN LITERATURE

1. Adventures for Readers Book I, page 580, "Gettysburg Address"
2. Adventures for Readers Book II, pages 578-582, "An Open Letter to America's Students"
3. Speech in the Virginia Convention, March 23, 1775 by Patrick Henry

ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to collect ads. Label these ads, using the devices of persuasion. Analyze the reasons for the given labels.

2. Have students select articles from newspapers or periodicals. Cite the sentences or phrases which illustrate persuasion techniques.

3. Suggest that students choose an area of controversy. Write a brief speech to present to the class. Discuss the means for securing a change of opinion.

4. Have students point out how the "bandwagon" or "anti-bandwagon" devices are used in political campaigns.

5. Assign students to find examples of "glittering generalities," "name calling," or "plain folks" appeal from campaign speeches.

6. Ask students to collect slogans illustrating persuasive use of language.

## GROUP ACTIVITIES

### CONVERSATION

Conversation involves a free flowing give-and-take whether there are two, three, four, or a larger number of participants. We should keep in mind the techniques of good conversation: attempt to make sincere contributions, avoid talking too much or interrupting, and be alert and tactful. Effective conversation may be encouraged by:

### ROLE-PLAYING CONVERSATIONS

A student sent to the principal's office must explain the situation to a parent, a friend, a clergyman, and the principal.

### INTRODUCTIONS

Students simulate introductions to an informal group and to a formal audience.

### INTERVIEWS

Pair up for planned interviews involving students who are well read or who can be assigned subjects.

### IMPROMPTU SPEECH ACTIVITIES

Impromptu activities can be planned for students in an effort to promote better thinking and more careful distinction in the use of language.

### CLASSIFICATION

Put the following list on the board and have students tell different ways of classifying the items:

otter
earthworm
armadillo
kangaroo
dinosaur
sheep
coral snake
beaver
eagle
phoenix
opossum
coyote
whale
alligator
mink
copperhead
iguana
squirrel
fox
boa constrictor
bat
dog
unicorn
mammoth
mastodon
muskrat
owl

### ILLUSTRATION

Have students choose one of a series of statements and complete it:

1. My little brother (or sister) often does funny things. For instance,_____

2. My older brother (or sister) is sometimes mean to me. For instance, _____

3. My parents don't understand me. For instance, _____

4. This school doesn't offer enough subjects. For instance, _____

## AVOIDING CLICHÉS

Supply students with parts of a cliché and allow students to supply the remaining words:

hungry as a __________
alike as two __________
avoid something like the __________

Have the students suggest more clichés. Then ask for suggestions for different words which create a fresher image.

## VERBAL RELATIONSHIPS

Write on the board these categories of relationships: comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and time order.

Show pairs of sentences. Have students discuss the relationship between the ideas in the two sentences, and join the two into one by supplying a connecting word. As they give their sentences, list the connecting words in the appropriate category.

1. He was on the football team.
   He was in high school.

2. John was the last boy in the line of graduates.
   His last name is Zurko.

3. All the guests had left.
   Johnny decided to play his guitar.

4. Charles is tall for his age.
   His older brother is only five feet tall.

5. He ran.
   He hit me.

6. The diamond is one of the most expensive gems in the world.
   It is beautiful, lasting, and useful.

7. It had grown dark.
We had to go home.

8. Jean came into the room.
She started to talk to her mother.

9. She studied a long time.
She wanted to make a good grade on the test.

10. My brother is only six years old.
He knows a lot about science.

### INFORMAL DISCUSSION

Good discussion must be kept active, dominated by none, and at the same time artfully steered. It should be well planned to create an effective learning situation and faster creative thinking. Finding the answer is not always the aim of discussion; it may be simply to explore the many facets of a given topic. Paramount to fruitful discussion is the attitude by students and teacher alike that each individual is a worthy member of the class and that the ideas produced by creative thinking merit respect. Although students should be given opportunities to lead the group, in the final analysis the responsibility for leading and stimulating discussion falls on the teacher.

### SOURCES FOR CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Observation
2. Personal experience
3. Written material
4. Mass media

### VARIETIES OF CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Fact
2. Illustration
3. Comparison - contrast
4. Summarizing statement

## ACTIVITIES FOR CLASSROOM DISCUSSION

1. Have students discuss objects or areas of human relations in which inventors, customs, or public policies have been highly uncreative, inflexible, or unadaptable. Have students suggest alterations for the betterment of the individual or society.

   A question might be worded in this way: "Who are usually responsible for human progress - people who try to be exactly like everyone else or people who dare to be somewhat 'different'? Your evidence? May "differences" be carried too far? "
   - from J.N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English, New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1965, p. 163.

2. Have students cast a critical, yet creative eye on their own school to identify problems in school life which are not being adequately recognized or met. (Evaluate effectiveness of student government, co-curricular program, assemblies; discuss overall needs in the school's program which could be improved.)

3. Have students try brainstorming: (a) Complete similes in unusual ways. (b) List all the ways a quotation could be developed and the many points of view that could be taken toward it. (c) Get suggestions for titles or captions for poems, cartoons, pictures.

   The following quotations taken from The New Dictionary of Thoughts, (New York, Standard, 1954) as cited in Teaching Language and Literature, Loban, Ryan, Squire, may be used:

   > For good or ill your conversation is your advertisement. Every time you open your mouth, you let men look into your mind. - Barton
   >
   > It is good to rub and polish your brain against others. - Montaigne
   >
   > Not only to say the right thing in the right place, but far more difficult, to leave unsaid the wrong thing at the tempting moment. - Sala
   >
   > I don't like to talk much with people who always agree with me. It is amusing to coquette with an echo for a little while, but one soon tires of it. - Carlyle

4. Have students discuss the serious problems in human relations which result from limited vision, inflexibility, and lack of creative foresight. Draw on real-life situations and those depicted in literature.

## ACTIVITIES FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Note these questions from the Adventures series, Harcourt, Brace, and World:

"Run, Boy, Run!" What effect did Glenn's parents have on his character development? What traits of character did he reveal during his sickness and period of recovery?

"Master Counterfeiters." Which of these qualities are most important in a successful detective? Defend your choices by references to the story.

intelligence
skill with firearms
patience
courage
a witty tongue
hatred of criminals

See how well you can defend this statement: The character of the detective is the main point of the story.

"The Glorious Whitewasher." How does Tom get his friends to compete for the privilege of whitewashing the fence? Do you think the boys really enjoyed the work? What is the difference between work and fun? What do you do for fun that might seem like work to someone else?

"The Odyssey." If Odysseus were being tried for his blinding of Polyphemus, what verdict do you think a modern jury would bring in? How do our ideas of justice differ from those of Odysseus' time?

Great Expectations. Which characters in the story and which particular scenes in it do you think are drawn from Charles Dickens' own life experience?

These activities were suggested in an article by Gladys Veidemanis, "A Curriculum View of Class Discussion," The English Journal, January, 1962, p. 25.

## ACTIVITIES FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Using the unit "Spotlight on You" plus the story "The Ten-Dollar Bill" (from Adventures for Readers, Book I) divide the class into seven groups after reading all of the stories. Assign each group a different story for the purpose of discussing the characters. Have the class compare the characters after hearing excerpts from the stories and brief summaries from each group.

2. Using the story "Top Secret," Adventures for Readers, Book II (Page 483), divide the class into groups to plan an ending. Have each group compose the ending and present it to the entire class.

3. Divide the class into eight groups for the purpose of reading a variety of short stories. Assign each group one author for concentrated study. Use authors such as Dickens, Thurber, Runyan, O'Henry, Poe, London, de Maupassant, Chekhov. The small group should compare the stories of a given author and suggest one or two stories for the entire class to read.

## PANEL DISCUSSION

The panel discussion is a more formal means of discussing topics. Some degree of ability in impromptu thinking and speaking is necessary to keep the panel discussion flexible and spontaneous. It would be wise to involve the entire class in choosing the topic to be considered and the manner in which it is to be presented.

A chairman or moderator should be chosen to steer discussion, plus three or four members of the class to serve as panelists. The topic should be divided so that each panelist is responsible for presenting a short statement explaining his phase of the subject. The panelists then may question one another before having questions directed to them from other members of the class. The chairman must see that all pieces fit the whole picture and bring the discussion to a close with a brief summary.

ACTIVITIES

1. Several better readers might comprise a panel to discuss with the class outside reading (poems, short stories, novels, plays) correlated with the unit being studied. The panelists could point out likenesses and differences which appear in idea and content and encourage other members of the class to read similar selections.
2. Review highlights of the year's news as done by our newscasters on T.V.
3. Discuss: Is the Metropolitan form of government good for Miami?

Since parliamentary procedure has a place in many activities involving student groups, students should become familiar with the order of business and the procedure for making and amending motions. They should also know the procedure for electing officers, addressing the chair, and the order of motions.

# LANGUAGE STUDY

## INTRODUCTION
## AND
## SCOPE

The study of the English language in the junior high school has until recent years concerned itself almost exclusively with grammar. While grammar is an important aspect of language study, it does not warrant the weighty attention it has received. There are other areas of language study which merit investigation by the students and which are included in this guide as possible units of study. Some of these non-grammar facets include the nature of language, the history of the English language, and the study of language varieties.

The study of language has a humanistic aim. Language is a part of culture and a reflection of a culture's history, attitudes, and changes. It provides the students with opportunities to explore their language in terms of their lives. It makes available to them some part of the huge, relatively new body of knowledge that linguists have organized. The language centered units also create additional opportunities for research and writing activities that meet the demands of a "thinking-talking-writing" oriented language arts program.

Of necessity the scope of this section of the guide is limited; therefore, some areas of the language arts program, such as semantics, spelling, and mechanics, have been omitted. Concepts concerning usage are treated briefly in the unit on varieties of language. However, the problem of usage involving the changing of nonstandard expressions to standard ones is a continuing matter for attention at all levels and, ideally, in all classes.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Some of the ideas developed in the following units have been adapted from material produced at the Curriculum Center in English at the University of Minnesota. Much of the material on transformational grammar has been adapted from The Roberts English Series, Harcourt, Brace, and World.

## BASIC CONCEPTS

The following is a list of concepts which teachers need to keep in mind as they help students gain insights into the English language:

| | |
|---|---|
| DEFINITION | Language is a system of sounds, lexicon (vocabulary, etymology, semantics) and structures used for the purpose of communication. |
| IMPORTANCE OF SPEECH | Speech is primary from the point of view of learning and understanding the language. Writing symbolizes speech. (This does not imply that writing or the teaching of writing is unimportant.) |
| CORRECTNESS OF LANGUAGE | Correctness of language is determined by current usage. "Standard" usage has come to mean the language of the educated speaker and writer. |
| LEVELS OF USAGE | The use of language involves making choices from levels of usage which reflect differences in social, economic, and educational background. The choice will depend upon the purpose and circumstances of the communication involved. |
| MEANINGS OF WORDS | Words have referents, not meanings. It is people who attach meanings to words. For example, the word police does not mean the same thing to the truant as it does to the lost child. |
| CHANGE IN LANGUAGE | Change in a living language is inevitable. The process of change is, in itself, neither good nor bad. |
| DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE | No one language is superior to another. Each society develops a language which fills the needs of its own culture. Some primitive peoples have very complex languages. |
| STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE | There is not a grammar common to all languages. Each language has its own unique structure. |

# THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

## PURPOSE OF UNIT

The purpose of this unit is to introduce to the student some basic ideas about language. The student is led to explore the possible origins of language, the process through which language is learned, the differences between language and other ways of communicating, and the importance of language to the individual and to the culture.

## HOW CHILDREN LEARN SPEECH

How do children learn to speak?

1. Read to class Chapter 13 of *The Story of My Life*, by Helen Keller to show how children who can't see and hear learn to speak.
2. Ask how children who can see and hear learn to speak. (The discussion of this question would be based on personal observations by students.)
   a. Whimpering and crying to express needs
   b. Babbling
   c. Imitative speech (without understanding the meaning) such as speech sounds and motor noises
   d. Referential speech (concrete such as *ball* and *dog*, abstract such as *love* and *pretty*)

## HOW MAN LEARNED SPEECH

What theories exist about how *man* learned to speak?

1. Gesture theory - man's speech was an outgrowth of a kind of pantomime
2. Ding-dong theory - early man identified objects by their sounds
3. Pooh-pooh theory - man made certain sounds by instinct
4. Yo-heave-ho theory - language originated as men began to work together on common tasks
5. Bow-wow theory - man imitated sounds of animals

All of these theories represent attempts to explain the origin of speech. Even though there is no single accepted theory, and the origin of speech still remains somewhat a mystery; it is an interesting subject for students to pursue through reading and discussion.

## ACTIVITIES

1. The class might read material in the library, prior to class discussion, on the origins of speech.
2. They could give reports on the various theories.
3. They could list words that would seem to suggest the validity of these theories.
4. They could coin new words to fit these hypotheses.
5. They could read in Adventures for Readers, Book II, "How to Bark Abroad," p. 103.

## HOW ANIMALS COMMUNICATE

In what ways do animals communicate?

Discussion from students should elicit information about how animals communicate with each other (warnings of danger), how they communicate with humans (growls and scratching to get out), and how humans communicate with animals (through commands and training).

## ACTIVITIES

1. Write a composition describing ways you and your pet communicate.
2. Write a paragraph describing an animal act you saw on T.V., at the Parrot Jungle, at the Seaquarium, etc.
3. Look up and report means of communication among bees, fish, porpoises, etc.
4. A summarizing discussion, at the end of these activities, might show the differences between animal communications and human speech. (Man's language is more flexible, for it deals with ideas, plans for the future, and recalls the past.)

## HOW MAN USES CODES

What are some codes by which man communicates? (Let us not consider at this point the idea of speech, which was raised in the last discussion.)

1. Visual codes (hand signals in traffic, sports and games, and semaphore using flags and lights)
2. Audible codes (drums, Morse Code, sirens, whistles, bells, bugle calls, etc.)
3. Cipher codes (as used by the military): Mario Pei in The Story of Language says that during World War II the Navajo speakers were used successfully for purposes of secret radio communication, since their language had not been studied by the German linguists.

ACTIVITIES

1. Demonstrate to the class some code you know (semaphore, sign language of the deaf, etc.).
2. Demonstrate signals used in sports.
3. Invent a cipher code substituting symbols for some letters of the alphabet.
4. Try decoding each other's messages.
5. Investigate the differences in meaning of common gestures used in various countries. (Questioning parents and people who have travelled abroad would be fruitful.)
6. A summarizing discussion would now consider:
    a. What do all of the codes and signals discussed have in common? (They all have units carrying meaning. They all have a sender, a message, and a receiver.)
    b. Is language, therefore, a code?
    c. Can language exist without writing?
    d. Therefore, is language basically speech or writing? (The teacher can stress the point that language is basically speech, and that writing symbolizes speech.)

HOW LANGUAGE HELPS INDIVIDUALS

How is language important to the individual?

1. Have students keep a log of day's experiences, indicating which experiences involved language.
2. Have students go through part of a class period trying to communicate without spoken or written language.

3. Get first hand accounts from students who came to this country without knowing the language and experienced frustration trying to communicate.
4. Discuss the importance of language to the personality of the individual. (Can you think about the personalities of President Johnson, John F. Kennedy, Gomer Pyle, and José Jimenez without considering their speech characteristics?)
5. Read to class parts of Chapters III and IV of The Story of My Life, by Helen Keller, in order to demonstrate the frustration resulting from the inability to communicate.
6. Discuss how Helen Keller's personality bloomed and developed as her ability to communicate increased. (Refer to autobiography, biographies, and the play or film, The Miracle Worker.)

## HOW LANGUAGE DEVELOPS CULTURE

How is language important in the development of a culture? Ask questions leading to the development of the following ideas:

1. Language makes possible recording of the past, explaining of the present, and anticipating of the future. (How do we know about ancient Greek ideas on government? How do we know about what is happening in Viet Nam? How do we know about future space projects?)
2. Language is necessary for verbal thinking. (Could the cave man have developed a theory of nuclear physics?)
3. Language provides the means for vicarious experience. (Can you describe a walk in space, an Arctic exploration, or life in Equatorial Africa?)
4. Language is probably man's greatest invention. (Is there any invention which you consider more important than language? If so, why? What inventions could not have been devised without language?)
5. The discussion could be followed by the record "A Word In Your Ear," which is an interesting summary of material in this unit.

## MATERIALS FOR THIS UNIT

### AUDIO-VISUAL

1. Record

   "A Word in Your Ear," Folkways Records Album #9171, Folkways Records and Service Corp., 121 W. 47th Street, N.Y.C., New York.

2. Films

   The Nature of Language and How It Is Used, 407 NL

   The Alphabet Conspiracy can be ordered from the Bell Telephone Company.

### PUBLICATIONS

1. Melchior, Thomas E., "A Language Unit in the Junior High School," English Journal, September, 1967.
2. Practical English, April 15, 1965, Vol. 38. This issue has a special section, "Our Living Language," which covers the nature of language and also includes material about language families, the history of the English language, dialects, and writing.
3. Read, a school magazine for reading and English published by American Education Publications, has a section called "Language Corner" in each issue.

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Sparke, William, The Story of the English Language, New York, Abelard, 1965.

West, Fred, Breaking the Language Barrier, New York, Coward, 1961.

Williamson, Margaret, The First Book of Mammals, New York, Watts, 1957.

Zim, Herbert S., Codes and Secret Writing, New York, Morrow, 1948.

# VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE

## PURPOSE

The junior high school student often feels that there is only one kind of English that is acceptable in the classroom - that there is only a right or a wrong way of saying something. Through the material in this unit he may be made aware of the kinds of variations in the language and the kinds of choices involved in its use. He will investigate the differences in language that exist because of geography, occupation, education, and such individual characteristics as age, sex, and special interests. This awareness should lead to the understanding that correctness is essentially appropriateness. Appropriateness in language is determined by such factors as the form (written or spoken), the occasion, the purpose, the audience, and the degree of formality that the situation demands.

This does not mean that the teacher should abandon the standards of usage which have traditionally been taught. The study of the English language will reveal to the student the advantage of developing a sensitivity to these varieties as well as the importance of developing proficiency in the effective use of his language.

## INTRODUCTION

Students are generally fascinated by an investigation of language varieties because it permits and encourages the observation and recording of kinds of language used outside of the English classroom. Investigation also helps the student to know himself in terms of the "language" groups with which he is identified.

## LANGUAGE AND GEOGRAPHY

How does our language vary because of geography? (Dialects - U.S.A. is an excellent source for the teacher in developing the following ideas and activities.)

1. Show film *Dialects* or play record "Spoken English" to introduce class to the study of regional dialects.
2. The discussion following the film or record should bring out the fact that regions have dialect differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. (Most of the exercises in this unit are concerned with vocabulary differences.)
3. The teacher may explain about *The Linguistic Atlas of the U.S.* (p. 14 of *Dialects - U.S.A.*).
4. Explore historical events and social forces which contributed to dialect differences in the U.S. (*Dialects - U.S.A.* and *Practical English*, April 15, 1965 are both excellent source material.)
5. The teacher may record on tape the speech of some of the students in the class in order to notice dialect differences.
6. Discuss whether or not the students speak with the same dialect as their parents and friends. "What could account for the differences?" might be asked here.
7. Present list of words (*Dialects - U.S.A.*) that the students will use as the basis for a poll among family, neighbors and friends.
8. Discuss results and ask if they discovered any regional expressions or words not found on the list.
9. Read or act out "The Glorious Whitewasher" in *Adventure for Readers*, Book II. This play or certain poems by Langston Hughes, Paul Dunbar, Robert Frost, etc. are good material for this work in regional dialects. The reading can be followed by discussion on how the use of regional dialects enriches a literary work and helps develop characterizations. (This may lead to some discussion of local color.)
10. For library reading, American tall tales and selections by such authors as Mark Twain, Bret Harte, Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, Lois Lenski, Jesse Stuart, and Jessamyn West offer a rich source of examples of regional dialects.

11. A summarizing discussion may consider whether any one regional dialect is superior to another. It is hoped that the student may have developed a more democratic attitude towards differences among people.

### LANGUAGE, OCCUPATIONS, AND INTERESTS

How does our language vary because of occupations and interests? (Jargon)

1. Have class suggest a list of occupations and professions which have specialized vocabularies - builders, doctors, social workers, waiters, etc. Then have class work in committees conducting interviews of people in such fields and preparing reports on the vocabulary items they have found special to these fields.
2. Discussion and listing of jargon used in hobbies and interests of class members (surfing, football, stamp collecting) would probably be interesting to students.
3. What fields of work or play might the following words come from: baste, pin, stretch, steal, fly, down, catch, dolly, sacrifice, plate? (This activity would demonstrate how specialized words can become within a particular field.)

### LANGUAGE, AGE, AND SEX

How does our speech vary according to our age and sex?

1. Hold up a picture of a baby and ask some boys, then some girls to describe the baby. Note the differences in vocabulary and intonation.
2. Write brief description of a car, a friend, or an actor from the point of view of a teen-age boy, a teen-age girl, a mother, and a father. (If the teacher wishes to deal with slang, this would be a logical place for it.)

## LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION

How does our language vary with education?

1. Read a selection from literature that quotes nonstandard speech of a character. ("Ransom of Red Chief" has some examples of this.) Ask, "What does this language reveal about the character?"
2. Follow up with a discussion that would lead to an understanding of the differences between standard and nonstandard usage, standard usage being the language used by the educated speaker or writer of the language.

## LANGUAGE, SPEECH, AND WRITING

How does our language vary from speech to writing?

1. Is it harder to write something or to say something? Why? Let us see if this is true. Write a short, informal invitation to a coke party that you are giving. (Teacher can collect these and then ask several students to invite classmates, orally, to the party.) Discuss the differences in the two invitations. (Writing demands more organization, but it doesn't require as many examples or redundancies as spoken language. It is bound by its own conventions such as spelling and punctuation.)
2. How do both speech and writing vary according to the degree of formality required? For example, how would you tell the class about a student council party; how would you announce this party to the school over the loudspeaker? How would you write to your parents, from camp, asking for some extra money; how would you write this to your parents' lawyer if they happened to be away on vacation?

## CONCLUSION

By developing the preceding concepts about usage, the teachers will find that the task of encouraging students to substitute standard usage for nonstandard becomes easier. The individual student usually becomes more receptive to the practice required to change a particular speech habit.

In determining which particular items of usage to stress, the teacher may refer to a number of lists in grammar handbooks or articles, including:

Pooley, Robert C., "Dare Schools Set a Standard in English Usage?" English Journal, March, 1960 .

Golden, Ruth, Improving Patterns of Language Usage, 1960, N.C.T.E. (Particularly for use with the disadvantaged.)

## MATERIALS FOR THIS UNIT

### AUDIO-VISUAL

1. Films

   Dialects
   The Alphabet Conspiracy

2. Records

   "Spoken English," Scott Foresman.
   "Our Changing English Language," ("Dialects" on side 2), McGraw-Hill, 1965.

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1. Articles

   Ashley, Annabel, "Using Dialects U.S.A. in High School Classes," English Journal, April, 1964.

   Gott, Evelyn, "Teaching Regional Dialects in the Junior High School," English Journal, May, 1964.

   Novak, Benjamin, "The Queen's English," English Journal, May, 1964.

2. Books

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NOTE: Other good sources are glossaries in books about hobbies, sports, professions, etc.

# HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

## PURPOSE

To increase the student's understanding of his language by developing the following concepts:

1. Change in language is normal and inevitable.
2. Gradual change has taken place in the English language during its approximately 1500 years of recorded history, with the result that the modern speaker of English can no longer understand Old English.
3. Nevertheless, Modern English is still the same language. At no time in its history has one generation been unable to understand the preceding or the following generation.
4. These gradual changes in our language seem to have followed patterns which are still operating today.

## INTRODUCTION

The material to be presented is divided into two parts. The teacher may teach this as a single unit or may teach either part. The first unit deals with language changes and the reason for and patterns of these changes. The second unit deals with the history of the speakers of the English language in relation to changes in the language. Changes in spelling, pronunciation, and syntax may be brought up incidentally, but the emphasis in the junior high school probably should be on changes in vocabulary.

## UNIT I - CAUSES AND PATTERNS OF CHANGE

### REASONS FOR CHANGE

Key generalizations about language change:

1. New ideas, inventions, and discoveries which require names
   a. List terms you think came into the language or took on new meanings because of the invention of the automobile, television, or airplane.
   b. Discuss terms from mathematics or science which your parents say they don't remember from their high school days.
   c. List terms related to surfing, hot-rods, scuba diving, or other hobbies and interests.
2. The passing of old ideas, inventions, and discoveries
   a. What words seem old-fashioned or square to you and are hardly used any more by you and your friends? (List these expressions on the board and discuss why they are going out of form.)
   b. Bring into class lists of words or expressions which your parents or grandparents formerly used in relation to clothing, dances, automobiles, medicine, aviation, fads, etc. (Big apple, middy-blouse, cranking the car, bleeding a patient, etc.)
3. Contact with other people and languages
   a. Read the Life, March 2, 1962 article on the English language by Lincoln Barnett. (Discuss this with class.)
   b. The converse of this is, of course, also true. We borrow freely from other languages. Can you think of foods, for example, which we have taken, along with their original names? (Pizza, paella, espresso, borscht) Can you think of similar lists of borrowed words in music, ballet, or other fields?

## PATTERNS OF CHANGE

1. Principle of polarity
    a. The teacher can give an analogy to centrifugal and centripetal forces. Some forces tend to inhibit language changes while others tend to accelerate them.
    b. Ask, "What difficulties would we find if our language changed without restraint?" (We might not be able to communicate with each other.)
    c. Ask, "What difficulties would we find if our language never changed?" (We might not be able to talk and write about new events, inventions, discoveries, etc.)
2. Generalization and specialization in word meanings
    a. Generalization

        Some words began life referring to specific things but assumed a more general meaning. Some examples are:

        dilapidated - from Latin *lapis*, meaning stone
        candidate - from Latin *candidus*, meaning white
        holiday - meant holy day
        bonfire - meant bone fire
        goodby - meant God be with you

        Even modern trade names have generalized in meaning:

        Frigidaire
        Scotch tape
        Popsicle
        Jello
        Kodak
        Coke
        Kleenex
        Band-aid

    b. Specialization

        Some words began life referring to general categories but assumed specific meaning. Some examples are:

        undertaker - a person who could undertake anything
        disease - meant lack of ease
        liquor - was once the same as liquid
        corn - once meant grain. In Scotland it specified oats, and in England it came to mean wheat.

Sometimes localities or groups of people have their own special words.

pipe - means different things to the smoker, the plumber, the organist
ring - means different things to the jeweler, the boxer, the policeman
nail - means different things to the carpenter and manicurist

## CONCLUSION

The story "Trademark" by Jessamyn West is a good story through which patterns of generalization and specialization in language can be analyzed ("the school jester," "it panicked them," "I'm a character," etc.).

## UNIT II - IMPACT OF HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

Unit I dealt with forces that operate even today in our language change. We are now going to find out how events in history have influenced our language.

1. Play to the class the Folkways record, "The Changing English Language," which illustrates the sounds of English in different historical periods. After playing the record discuss some of the differences noticed. What has happened from the Anglo-Saxon selection to the modern English selection?
2. The teacher would find it best to focus on the changes in words (vocabulary). "Do you remember the lists of borrowed words for foods and music which are used today? Perhaps this same kind of borrowing went on a long time ago in the early history of our language."
3. The teacher can present on acetate or write on board a sentence with underlined words, such as this:

   Stretched out on the chaise under the banyan tree, I watched my sister as she prepared the barbecue sauce for the steak.
4. Have the class look up the origin of the underlined words; then go over the answers together.

5. Point out to the class that the dictionary is not only helpful in giving us language origins, but is also helpful in telling or suggesting historical, mythological, and social information about words.
6. Present words with interesting backgrounds and ask the students to figure out from the dictionary information how the words probably came to mean what they do. A suggested list could be:

   chocolate
   ink
   choreography
   tobacco
   derrick
   garage
   bedlam
   bugle

7. It would be appropriate to tell the class that this kind of language borrowing goes back to the early Germanic peoples who came to England with some Latin words they had already borrowed as a result of the influence of the Roman Empire. They borrowed words like copper, cheese, mint (coining money), disc. "Why do you think they borrowed *these* words?" (It is important for students to note that they probably borrowed these words because they had never had contact with money, or dishes (discs), or cheese. Therefore, they had to borrow names for these things.)
8. After the Germanic tribes settled in England, they began expanding their language by borrowing from other people with whom they came in contact. Have the class or committees in the class find out how:
   (1) Latin words came into English (Christianization - 6th Century)
   (2) Scandinavian words came into English (Vikings - 8th Century)
   (3) French words came into English (Norman Invasion - 11th Century)
   (4) Greek and Latin words came into English (Renaissance - 15th Century)

9. The students or committee chairmen can report back to class and tell their findings. The class might have a student do a simple time line at the board showing the historical events that affected language change.
10. At the end of the reports the teacher could introduce the idea that it wasn't simply the invasion of the Normans, for example, that was responsible for French words, but also the amount and kind of cultural intermingling between the Normans and the Saxons (English) that determined the language change. (Most of the books the teacher will use for reference emphasize this point.) The reports given by the class prior to this discussion can be examined to see whether there is a relationship between the cultural contact under consideration and the language change that took place.
11. The discussion can be tied to the earlier unit to show that borrowing (a major source of new terms in our vocabulary) is a process still going on today, and still for the same general reasons.
12. Advanced or interested students can be asked to do individual investigation on the following aspects of our language history:
    (1) The story of the Indo-European language
    (2) History of place names (British or American)
    (3) History of people's first names
    (4) History of surnames
    (5) History of the names of days of the week and the months
    (6) Development of the alphabet
    (7) The influence of recent historical events (World War II with words such as foxhole, jeep, beachhead, radar, paratroop, etc.)
    (8) Investigation of the extent to which English is used around the world

CONCLUSION

The teacher should stress the important fact that our language structure (grammar) has changed very little from about the period of Middle English (14th century) until today, while our lexicon (vocabulary) has changed radically and continues to change. These units emphasize the change due to borrowing and show that the need for names for new discoveries and inventions, that the cultural contact between and among peoples, and that historical events and movements are all influential in producing a living, changing, language.

### MATERIALS FOR THIS UNIT

### AUDIO-VISUAL

1. Records

   "The Changing English Language," Folkways Records.
   "A Thousand Years of English Pronunciation," Education Audio-visual, Inc.

2. Films

   The English Language: Story of Its Development

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______________, *Why You Say It*, Nashville, Abingdon, 1955.

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# KERNEL SENTENCES

## PURPOSE

The purpose of this section of the guide is to help the student:

1. to identify the words and structures which make up a sentence
2. to formulate basic sentences according to the rules of generative-transformational grammar
3. to improve spelling and understanding of words through the study of morphemes
4. to make appropriate choices in usage

## INTRODUCTION

The two grammar sections in this guide provide a sequential program in transformational grammar for the junior high school student. Except for an occasional NOTE to the teacher, all the material is addressed to the student, with the expectation that teachers may reproduce sections of it for the use of students in summarizing and review activities. It is suggested that the inductive method be used for the initial presentation by the teacher. Continued emphasis on oral as well as written practice is important. Sample practice exercises are provided after most sections.

Diagnostic testing will be necessary to determine at what point instruction should begin for each student. It is hoped that the material in the guide will be helpful to the teacher in providing for the needs of groups on different levels. Since there is such wide variation among groups on a given grade level, it is difficult to specify which concepts should be covered in each grade. However, the following suggested guidelines may be helpful:

## Seventh Grade

Structures in the noun phrase and verb phrase

The passive transformation

Introduction to the relative clause transformation

## Eighth Grade

Review of noun phrase and verb phrase structures and functions

Relative clause

Noun phrase modifiers

Subordinate clause

Compound structures

Sentence connectors

## Ninth Grade

The ninth grade teacher will have to teach or review, as needed, the material suggested for the other two grades as well as the rest of the material in this guide which is appropriate for the individuals or groups being taught.

## NOUN PHRASE

There are two kinds of sentences: kernel sentences and transforms. Kernel sentences are simple kinds of sentences like the following:

The paper is here.
James read that book.
The captain is John.
The baby seems tired.

Transforms are more complicated forms which will be studied later.

Every kernel sentence is made up of two main parts:

1. a noun phrase that functions as the subject
2. a verb phrase that functions as the predicate

The terms noun phrase and verb phrase are the names of the structures; the terms subject and predicate name the functions of the structures. A function of a structure is its use in relation to other structures in a sentence.

## KERNEL SENTENCE RULE

The rule for a sentence may be stated as follows:

sentence → noun phrase + verb phrase

OR

S → NP + VP

The single arrow in a rule means is made up of.

The following are examples of kernel sentences divided into NP and VP (structure) or subject and predicate (function).

1. Somebody/is noisy.
2. A boy/was whistling loudly.
3. The teacher/was speaking.
4. John/will come.
5. He/is rowing the boat.

## NOUNS

Nouns are words like boy, bell, John, food, friendship.

There are two kinds of nouns, proper nouns and common nouns. Proper nouns are particular names like John, Miami, Mrs. Stevens. Common nouns, such as man, boy, town, table, do not refer to particular persons or things.

Common nouns may be countable or noncountable. Countable nouns refer to things that can be counted, like girl, lamb, book, answer. Noncountable nouns refer to things that cannot be counted, like furniture, honesty, insurance. For example, two girls is grammatical, but two furnitures is not.

## NOUN RULE

$$\text{noun} \longrightarrow \left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{proper} \\ \text{common} \left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{countable} \\ \text{noncountable} \end{array}\right. \end{array}\right.$$

## PRACTICE

Fit common nouns into the blanks in each sentence and identify as count or noncount in the blank at the left.

count 1. A post fell down.
______ 2. That ______ tasted good.
______ 3. Some ______ may have been there.
______ 4. His ______ was stolen.
______ 5. Each ______ gave her a present.
______ 6. No ______ was neat.
______ 7. Several ______ walked in.
______ 8. Thirty ______ were handed in.

### DETERMINER + NOUN

The noun phrase may consist of just one word. One kind of noun phrase is a proper noun. Another kind of noun phrase consists of a determiner followed by a noun. We can express the make-up of this kind of noun phrase by the following rule:

noun phrase → determiner + noun
or
NP → D + N

### ARTICLE

### Definite

The most important kind of determiner is the article. There are two kinds of articles, definite and nondefinite. There is only one definite article, the. When the article the comes before a noun, it refers to something definite. In the noun phrase the book, a particular book is indicated.

### Nondefinite

The nondefinite articles are a (an) and some. The noun phrases a book and some food do not refer to a particular book or to specific food. The article a is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound; an is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound. Some is used before noncount nouns and plural count nouns. Here are some examples of determiner + noun in which the determiner is an article:

| definite article | nondefinite article |
|---|---|
| the book | a book |
| the answer | an answer |
| the students | some students |
| the furniture | some furniture |

### PRACTICE

In the following sentences, underline the noun phrase which functions as the subject of the sentence. Then indicate whether it consists of a proper noun (PN) or a determiner + noun (D + N). Any determiner in this exercise is an article. Write the article and indicate whether it is definite or nondefinite.

Example: The dinner was very good.
D + N; the; def.

1. The temperature had dropped.

2. Some rain had fallen.

3. Jane liked rain.

4. Some cars splashed water on the sidewalk.

5. Mr. Waters was driving one car.

Some students may need practice in the use of a and an.

1. ________ picture fell.
2. ________ door opened.
3. ________ elephant strolled in.
4. ________ lion roared.
5. ________ ant crawled up the wall.

Write ten short sentences in each of which the subject is D + N. Underline the determiner and tell whether it is definite or nondefinite.

### Null Article

There is one other possibility for the nondefinite article. Consider the following sentences:

> The boy was selling some tomatoes.
> The boy was selling tomatoes.

In the first sentence, some is a nondefinite article. In the second sentence the idea of nondefinite tomatoes is understood. Therefore a nondefinite article is said to be present even though there is no word for it. In this case it is called the null article, and the symbol for it is ∅. The rule for nondefinite can be written this way:

### Rule for Nondefinite

$$\text{nondefinite article} \longrightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} \text{a(n)} \\ \text{some} \\ \emptyset \end{Bmatrix}$$

### MORE DETERMINERS

In addition to the article, there are some other kinds of determiners.

NUMBERS
one, two, ...
first, second ...

DEMONSTRATIVES
this, these
that, those

POSSESSIVES
my
his
her
its
our
your
their

Another kind of determiner is the quantifier, which indicates how much or how many. Quantifiers are words like the following:

QUANTIFIERS

- all
- any
- many
- a few
- several
- much
- more
- most
- less
- each
- both
- either
- neither
- every
- no

Sometimes the noun after certain determiners may be deleted, as in these sentences:

Many ~~students~~ are absent today.
This ~~article~~ is interesting.

Underline the determiner and identify as possessive or demonstrative.

poss.____ 1. His desk looks new.
________ 2. My friends are here.
________ 3. This house is old.
________ 4. Its paw was hurt.
________ 5. Those answers are correct.

PRACTICE

Underline the determiner and identify as quantifier or number.

quan.____ 1. Much courage was shown.
________ 2. Five trees fell.
________ 3. Both books were damaged.
________ 4. No reason was given.
________ 5. One page is missing.

Underline the determiner and identify as article, possessive, demonstrative, or quantifier.

poss.____ 1. My book is lost.
________ 2. Their house burned down.
________ 3. Those girls are friends.
________ 4. Several books are missing.
________ 5. Some guests have arrived.

PRE-ARTICLE

In sentences like the following, the determiner includes all the underlined words:

One of those ten children is here.
Several of the guests have arrived.
All of the classes are easy.

Structures like *one of*, *several of*, and *all of* are called pre-articles. When a pre-article is present in the determiner, the number (singular or plural) of the noun phrase is usually determined by the pre-article, and the verb agrees with it. In the first example sentence above, *is* is singular because *one* is singular.

### PRACTICE

Make a sentence by adding a verb phrase to the noun phrase given. Be sure that the verb agrees in number with the pre-article. Use *is*, *are*, *was*, or *were*.

1. Many of the people (are on vacation.)
2. One of the boys
3. Each of us
4. Either of the men
5. Few of the students

### MORPHEMES

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a word. The meaning may be lexical (the meaning found in a dictionary) or it may be grammatical. For instance, there is only one morpheme in the word *book*. However, in the word *books* there are two units of meaning and therefore two morphemes, *book + plural*.

### PLURAL

The word *men* also has two morphemes, *man + plural*. The plural morpheme consists of whatever is done to make a noun plural. When we talk about two or more *sheep*, we know that it means *sheep + plural* even though there is no change in the word. In this case we say that the plural morpheme is a null (ø). Thus the plural morpheme has the sound of *s* in *rocks*, a vowel change in *men*, and null in *sheep*.

### PRACTICE

NOTE: A teacher will find material on the formation of the plurals of nouns in most grammar textbooks. It is suggested that much practice in writing plurals be given before the possessive is introduced. Some students will also need oral drill in plural forms, particularly those in which the final *s* has the sound /z/. The following type of practice exercise might be used after the students have learned the forms:

Write (or say) the word indicated by the morphemes and use it in a sentence.

1. boy + plural (The boys are here.)
2. child + plural
3. mouse + plural
4. church + plural
5. woman + plural

## POSSESSIVE

There is a different morpheme in the noun man's, as in the man's car. Here again there are two morphemes, man + possessive. The main part of the word is called the base. The plural and possessive morphemes are called inflectional morphemes. These are the only inflectional morphemes in nouns. Another kind of morpheme, derivational, will be discussed later.

Possessive forms may be thought of as having been derived from a kernel sentence with have, as in the following examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| Sue has a dog. | The boy has a boat. |
| Sue's dog | the boy's boat |

The possessive form of a proper noun or a singular common noun is written by adding an apostrophe + s to the base.

Joseph + poss. → Joseph's
cat + poss. → cat's

The possessive form of a plural noun is written by first adding the plural morpheme to the base and then adding the possessive. If the plural form ends in s, only an apostrophe is added; if the plural form does not end in s, apostrophe + s is added.

boy + plural → boys
boy + plural + poss. → boys'

man + plural → men
man + plural + poss. → men's

NOTE: Some students need much practice in writing plural and possessive forms in sentences. Transformation exercises of the following kind may be helpful.

## PRACTICE

We have learned that the possessive may be produced from a kernel sentence in which the verb is a form of have. Two kernel sentences can be combined into one in this way:

1. Sue has a dog.
   Sue's dog

   Sue's
2. ~~The~~ dog bites.

Result: Sue's dog bites.

Combine the following pairs of kernel sentences into one:

1. Jim has a boat.
2. The boat leaks.

Result:

1. The men have wages.
2. The wages are high.

Result:

1. The boys have uniforms.
2. The uniforms are new.

Result:

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS

A noun phrase may be a proper noun or a determiner + noun. It may also be a personal pronoun.

The personal pronouns which function as the subject of a sentence are the following:

| Singular | Plural |
|---|---|
| I | we |
| you | you |
| he | they |
| she | |
| it | |

He
~~James~~ saw the race.

They
~~James-and-Joe~~ saw the race.

We
~~James-and-I~~ saw the race.

Two kernel sentences which have the same predicate may be combined in this way:

Jim came. I came.
Jim and I came.

He came. She came.
He and she came.

### PRACTICE

Insert personal pronouns into the subject positions in the following sentences:

1. Jane and _______ are going to the game.
2. _______ and _______ will be elected.
3. Jack and _______ are co-captains.
4. You and _______ will prepare the report.
5. _______ and _______ are friends.

### POSSESSIVE

Personal pronouns have the following possessive forms which are used as determiners before nouns: my, his, her, its, our, your, their.

They have a house. Their house is new.
It has fur. Its fur is soft.

Five of the personal pronouns have different possessive forms that are used when the noun is omitted: mine, hers, ours, yours, theirs.

This is my book. The book is mine.
This is your pen. The pen is yours.

Notice that an apostrophe is never used in the formation of the possessive of personal pronouns.

## INDEFINITE PRONOUN

The last kind of noun phrase is the indefinite pronoun. There are twelve indefinite pronouns, made up of combinations of these seven words:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{any-}\\ \text{every-}\\ \text{some-}\\ \text{no-}\end{array}\right. \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l}\text{-body}\\ \text{-one}\\ \text{-thing}\end{array}$$

The twelve indefinite pronouns are

anybody
anyone
anything

everybody
everyone
everything

somebody
someone
something

nobody
no one
nothing

NOTE: Through oral drill in class, students can easily memorize the seven personal pronouns and the twelve indefinite pronouns.

## NOUN PHRASE RULE

The rule for noun phrase can now be stated with this formula:

$$NP \longrightarrow \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{proper noun}\\ \text{personal pronoun}\\ \text{indefinite pronoun}\\ \text{determiner + noun}\end{array}\right\}$$

## PRACTICE

Underline the NP which functions as the subject, and tell whether it consists of (a) PN, (b) personal pronoun, (c) indefinite pronoun, or (d) D + N. Remember that in some noun phrases the determiner may be the null form of the nondefinite pronoun.

1. Raccoons make good pets. D + N
2. Mr. Jacobson received a promotion.
3. Some students were standing there.
4. The noise was deafening.
5. Somebody told the teacher about it.
6. Canada is a good neighbor.
7. We are not on good terms with them.
8. A guide led us through the ruins.

## VERB PHRASE

The verb phrase which functions as the predicate in a kernel sentence must contain either a form of the word be or a verb. Verbs are words like see, go, laugh, learn. They often express action (laugh, run), but sometimes they do not (seem, remain, feel).

### PRESENT TENSE

There are two inflectional morphemes which can be added to a noun, plural and possessive. Verbs have four inflectional morphemes, one of which is the present tense.

NOTE: The word tense refers to form, not to time. There are only two tenses in the English verb, present and past. Only in these two forms is there a tense change in the verb itself. Tense is considered a part of the auxiliary and is applied to the first word in the verb phrase.

He has gone. (pres. + have)
He had gone. (past + have)
He is going. (pres. + be)
He was going. (past + be)

It is necessary to point out the difference between tense and time.

He works at the bank.

In this sentence the verb is in the present tense, but it does not necessarily mean that he is working at the present time.

### SIMPLE FORM

The simple or base form of the present tense is used when the subject is I, we, you, they, or a plural noun phrase.

I
we
you } walk
they
the boys

There is another form of the present tense morpheme which is called the *s* form (runs, eats, hurries). It is used when the subject is

1. a singular noun phrase
   (The boy runs fast.)
2. he, she, or it
   (He runs fast.)
3. an indefinite pronoun
   (Nobody runs fast.)

## S FORM

To write the *s* form of most verbs we add the letter *s* to the simple form:

play --- plays    see --- sees
come --- comes    cut --- cuts

However, when the simple form ends in *ch*, *sh*, *s*, or *x*, the letters *es* are added:

catch --- catches
push --- pushes
press --- presses
mix --- mixes

When the simple form ends in a *y* with a consonant preceding it, we change the *y* to *i* and add *es*:

hurry --- hurries
carry --- carries
copy --- copies

## MORPHEME STRING

A sentence can be represented by a string of morphemes:

the + boy + present + like + Mary
The boy likes Mary.

the + boy + plural + pres. + study
The boys study.

## PRACTICE

Write the sentence represented by each of the following strings of morphemes:

1. he + pres. + catch + the + ball

2. the + gardener + plural + pres. + cut + the + grass

3. Jane + pres. + read + fast

4. she + pres. + copy + the + lesson

5. everyone + pres. + understand + it

6. the + horse + plural + pres. + eat + slowly

7. we + pres. + hurry + to + class

8. he + pres. + hurry + sometimes

## PAST TENSE

The past tense morpheme is whatever is done to a verb to make it past. Usually a sound is added which is spelled ed. Notice that each ed ending in the following words is pronounced differently.

past + call → called
past + jump → jumped
past + add → added

NOTE: Children who speak nonstandard English or English as a second language may need both oral and written drill in the ed forms as well as in the forms of be which follow.

If the simple form of the verb ends in y preceded by a consonant, we change the y to i and add ed.

past + hurry → hurried
past + carry → carried
past + copy → copied

Many verbs have irregular past tense forms:

come, came
see, saw
buy, bought
drink, drank
catch, caught
bring, brought

## PRACTICE

Write the sentences represented by the morpheme strings:

1. he + past + play + the + piano

2. I + past + walk + into + the + room

3. he + pres. + write + this + word

4. you + past + write + some + story + pl.

5. we + past + go + to + the + store

6. Bill + pres. + catch + the + pass + pl.

### BE

The verb phrase may contain a verb or a form of _be_. The verb and _be_ are considered separately because they do not act the same way in many sentences. Sometimes _be_ is preceded by forms like _will_, _may_, _must_:

He will be hungry.
He may be here.
He must be a doctor.

### Present

The present tense forms of _be_ are _am_, _is_, and _are_.

| Singular Subjects | Plural Subjects |
|---|---|
| I am here. | We are here. |
| You are here. | You are here. |
| He<br>She<br>It<br>The boy<br>Someone } is here. | They<br>The boys } are here. |

### Past

The past forms of _be_ are _was_ and _were_.

| Singular Subjects | Plural Subjects |
|---|---|
| I was here. | We were here. |
| You were here. | You were here. |
| He<br>She<br>It<br>The boy<br>Someone } was here. | They<br>The boys } were here. |

### PRACTICE

Apply the tense morpheme to _be_ and write the sentence represented by the string.

1. they + pres. + be + student + pl.

2. John + past + be + the + winner

3. the + pie + $\overset{\curvearrowright}{\text{pres. + be}}$ + delicious

4. the + decoration + pl. + $\overset{\curvearrowright}{\text{past + be}}$ + beautiful

5. we + $\overset{\curvearrowright}{\text{past + be}}$ + there

Fill in each blank, first with a form of pres. + be and then with past + be.

1. We _________ on time.
2. The people _________ hopeful.
3. Jack and Bill _________ in the house.
4. Nobody _________ here.
5. He _________ sick.

### BE + NOUN PHRASE

We know that a verb phrase may contain tense + be. If it contains a form of be, the be must be followed by a complement. One kind of complement that may follow be is a noun phrase. Which kind of noun phrase is the complement in each of the following sentences?

1. He is a carpenter. (D + N)
2. It was he. (personal pronoun)
3. The carpenter is Mr. Martin. (PN)
4. It was nothing. (indefinite pronoun)

NOTE: At this point the student can be given practice on the use of the personal pronoun after be.

### BE + ADJECTIVE

In another kind of verb phrase, be is followed by a word like tall, happy, beautiful, honest. These words are called adjectives.

John is tall.
The girls are pretty.
I am tired.

Adjectives often come before nouns.

the tall boy
the pretty girls

NOTE: A sentence which contains an adjective before a noun is not a kernel sentence. The tall boy is Jim is made up of two kernels:

The boy is tall.
The boy is Jim.

Adjectives will also fit into the blanks in these sentences:

It is very _______. (Be sure to include very.)

It seems _______.

Only a word that would be grammatical in both blank positions in the following sentence pattern is called an adjective:

The _______ NOUN is very _______.

NOTE: In the noun phrase a brick house, the word brick is a noun in form functioning as a modifier of another noun, house.

INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES

There are two inflectional morphemes that are attached to adjectives. They are the comparative morpheme, er, and the superlative morpheme, est.

NOTE: The teacher may wish here to give instruction or drill in comparative and superlative forms in which the consonant is doubled before er or est (bigger, biggest) and in which a final y is changed to i (happier, happiest).

PRACTICE

Identify the complement after be as adjective or NP. If it is NP, identify as proper noun, personal pronoun, indefinite pronoun, or determiner + noun.

1. Prices are high.
2. The girls are sisters.
3. The captain is Jim.
4. Jim is ambitious.
5. The winner was he.
6. The water is cold.

Write five sentences in which the VP consists of be + NP and five in which it consists of be + adjective.

## BE + ADVERBIAL OF PLACE

Another kind of complement used after be in the verb phrase may be an adverbial of place like here, there, outside, upstairs. Single-word adverbials are called adverbs.

The dog is outside.
We are here.
My room is upstairs.

Notice that the adverbial of place is an essential part of the kernel sentence after be; the sentence would not be complete without it.

## VERB PHRASE RULE

The first part of the rule for the verb phrase can be expressed this way:

$$\text{VP} \longrightarrow \text{be} + \begin{Bmatrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{Adj} \\ \text{Adv-p} \end{Bmatrix}$$

## PRACTICE

Tell whether the predicate in the following sentences consists of be + NP, be + Adj, or be + Adv-p. Remember that an adjective can usually be preceded by the word very.

The principal was here.
The team is good.
Jack is honest.
Mr. Harris is a farmer.
Someone was outside.
The tests were difficult.
Our cat is lazy.
Everybody is downstairs.

Write five kernel sentences with each kind of verb phrase:

be + NP    be + ADJ    be + ADV-p

## Prepositional Phrase

In addition to single-word adverbs, another kind of adverbial of place consists of a group of words like in the room, on the patio, above the house, under the porch. Groups of words like these are called prepositional phrases. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a noun phrase. Following is a list of some common prepositions:

above
across
around
at
before
below
beneath
beside
between
by
down
in
near
on
over
under
underneath
up

A word like this is called a preposition only when it is followed by a noun phrase.

**Prep. Phrase Rule**

prepositional phrase → Prep + NP

**PRACTICE**

Identify the adverbial of place in the following sentences as adverb or prepositional phrase:

1. The path is around the park.
2. The girls are in the house.
3. Harry is outside.
4. A spaceship is in the garden.
5. A ghost is behind you.
6. The cat is on the cabinet.
7. The newspaper is under that bush.
8. Someone is outside the window.
9. The helicopter was above a lake.

In the sentences above, circle each preposition and underline the noun phrase that follows it.

Write ten kernel sentences in which the VP is be + Adv-p. Underline the Adv-p and identify as adverb or prepositional phrase.

**VERBAL**

A verb phrase must have a form of be or a verbal. A verbal is a construction which contains a verb other than be. The verb may form the whole predicate, as in the following sentences:

Dogs bark.
The girl smiled.
The car stopped.
Something happened.

### INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Verbs like bark and smile, which may form the whole predicate, are called intransitive verbs. The symbol for intransitive verb is $V_I$.

### VERB PHRASE RULE

$$VP \rightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} be \ + \begin{Bmatrix} NP \\ Adj \\ Adv\text{-}p \end{Bmatrix} \\ \\ verbal \end{Bmatrix}$$

The rule for VP is still incomplete. One kind of verbal is $V_I$, and the other kinds will be described later.

### PRACTICE

Write ten kernel sentences in which the verb phrase consists only of an intransitive verb.

### Adverbial of Manner

Another kind of adverbial is the adverbial of manner. Adverbials of manner tell how or in what manner. An adverbial of manner may be either an adverb or a prepositional phrase and may come after an intransitive verb.

> She sang joyfully.
> She sang with joy.

Most adverbs of manner are formed by adding ly to an adjective.

> correct + ly → correctly
> sad + ly → sadly
> careful + ly → carefully
> happy + ly → happily

Remembering how the adverb of manner is formed will help in spelling correctly a word like carefully. If an adjective ends in y, the y is changed to i before ly.

A few adverbs of manner like hard, straight, high, fast have the same form as adjectives.

> The assignment is hard. (adjective)
> He works hard. (adverb)

The word good is an adjective. The word well is an adverb of manner but can also be an adjective referring to health.

The program was good.
The orchestra played well.
He has been sick, but now he is well.

NOTE: The teacher may choose to mention at this point that some adjectives are formed by adding ly to nouns.

man + ly → manly
king + ly → kingly
friend + ly → friendly

### PRACTICE

Add an adverbial of manner to each of the following structures:

1. The dog barked
2. Jane laughed
3. The baby toddled
4. Somebody shouted
5. Mr. Poole works
6. A bell rang

Write the adverb of manner formed by adding ly to each of the following adjectives. Use each in a sentence.

quiet
easy
sudden
careful
natural

hungry
hopeful
angry
weary
deceitful

Write eight sentences using the words good or well.

### Intensifiers

Words like very, too, somewhat, quite, rather and so often precede adjectives or adverbs. They are sometimes called intensifiers. They tell to what degree about the adjective or adverb.

This cake is very good.
She spoke too softly.
He is rather lazy.

Adverbs of manner sometimes function as intensifiers. Consider these two sentences:

She dresses unusually.
She dresses unusually well.

In the first sentence, unusually is an adverb of manner modifying the verb dresses; in the second it is an adverb of manner functioning as an intensifier modifying the adverb well.

**PRACTICE**

Underline the intensifier. Then indicate whether the word after the intensifier is an adjective or an adverb of manner.

1. The man walked very slowly.
2. Jane is quite talented.
3. I was so unhappy.
4. She sings rather well.
5. You write too carelessly.

Write ten similar sentences and follow the same directions.

**TRANSITIVE VERB + NP**

We have learned that one kind of verbal may be an intransitive verb. Another kind of verbal consists of a verb followed by a noun phrase. In sentences like the following, the verb is called a transitive verb ($V_T$), and the noun phrase after it is called the object of the verb.

**Object of verb**

1. The baby dropped the dish.
2. Congress passed a bill.
3. Bill bought a car.
4. Mr. Brown sells insurance.
5. The winner gave a speech.

Notice that the noun phrase after a transitive verb refers to a different person or thing from the subject.

**PRACTICE**

In the example sentences above, underline the noun phrase which functions as the object of the verb.

NOTE: A characteristic of the $V_T$ + NP sentence is that it can be transformed into the passive.

The winner gave a speech.
A speech was given by the winner.

The passive transformation will be described later, but teachers of some groups may want to teach it following the presentation of the kernel $V_T$ + NP.

The indirect object is considered the result of a transformation which will be described under "Subdivisions of $V_T$."

**PRACTICE**

Identify the verb phrase in the following sentences as be + NP or $V_T$ + NP:

1. Jimmy was the winner.
2. Our team won the game.
3. A storm wrecked the building.
4. The boys are sophomores.
5. Mother baked a cake.
6. Sally writes poetry.
7. The police caught the robbers.
8. Mr. Witherspoon is a cook.
9. Those boys were the culprits.

**Personal Pronoun + o**

The personal pronouns I, he, she, it, we, you, they are used as subjects of a sentence or as NP after be. Five of the personal pronouns have special forms which are used as objects of a verb or as objects of a preposition. The symbol for the object form is o.

I + o ---- me
he + o ---- him
she + o ---- her
we + o ---- us
they + o ---- them

**PRACTICE**

Underline the object form of the personal pronoun and identify as object of the verb or object of the preposition.

1. He saw me.
2. The Smiths live near us.
3. I heard her.
4. You like him.
5. We visited them.
6. A cloud hung over him.
7. James came with her.
8. I bought them.

NOTE: Practice with compound objects can be given by having students combine two sentences into one:

I saw him at the dance.
I saw her at the dance.
I saw him and her at the dance.

$V_T$ + NP + Adv-m

An adverbial of manner may follow an intransitive verb. It may also follow $V_T$ + NP in the verb phrase.

He drives carelessly. ($V_I$ + Adv-m)

He drives the car carelessly.
($V_T$ + NP + Adv-m)

In the first sentence the verb drives is intransitive because it is followed only by an optional adverbial; in the second it is transitive because it is followed by a noun phrase which functions as the object.

Here is a partial rule for a verbal as described this far:

VERB PHRASE RULE

$$\text{verbal} \text{ -----} \left\{ \begin{matrix} V_I \\ \\ V_T \; + \; NP \end{matrix} \right\} + (\text{Adv-m})$$

NOTE: Parentheses in a rule of this kind enclose optional elements.

PRACTICE

Identify the VP in each of the following sentences as $V_I$ or $V_T$ + NP. If an adverbial of manner follows, add the symbol Adv-m.

1. They answered quickly.
2. They answered the question.
3. He ate dinner in haste.
4. He ate too fast.
5. She sings beautifully.
6. She sang two numbers.

Write five sentences of each kind:

$V_I$ + Adv-m

$V_T$ + NP + Adv-m

### SEEM CLASS VERB + ADJECTIVE

Another class of verbs which may appear in the verbal is the seem class. These are verbs like seem, appear, look, taste, feel, sound, smell when they are followed by an adjective. The symbol for this kind of verb phrase is $V_s$ + Adj.

The book seems new.
The cake tastes good.
She feels happy.
The air smells smoky.

### PRACTICE

Write ten sentences in which the verb phrase consists of $V_s$ + Adj.

### BECOME CLASS VERB + NP OR ADJ

$V_b$ is the symbol for verbs of the become class. The two most common verbs of this class are become and remain. They differ from verbs of the seem class in that they can be followed by either a noun phrase or an adjective, whereas a $V_s$ is followed only by an adjective. The symbol for this kind of verb phrase is

$$V_b + \begin{Bmatrix} \text{NP} \\ \text{Adj} \end{Bmatrix}$$

They became friends.
They became friendly.

### PRACTICE

Write five sentences with $V_b$ + NP and five with $V_b$ + Adj.

Identify the verb phrase in the following sentences as

a. $V_I$ (+ Adv-m)
b. $V_T$ + NP (+ Adv-m)
c. $V_s$ + Adj
d. $V_b$ + NP or Adj

1. The girl became ill. (d)
2. He walked slowly. (a)
3. Bob grabbed the coat quickly. (b)
4. That orange tasted sour. (c)
5. She will become a secretary. (d)
6. He tasted the food suspiciously. (b)
7. They laughed scornfully. (a)
8. The boy appeared hurt. (c)

## MIDDLE VERB + NP

Verbs like those in the following sentences are called middle verbs:

1. The book costs a dollar.
2. The board measures ten feet.
3. The baby weighed seven pounds.
4. John has my book.

The middle verb resembles a transitive verb in that it is followed by a noun phrase, but in this case the noun phrase is not the object of the verb. Notice the difference between these two sentences:

The baby weighed seven pounds.
(V-mid + NP)
The nurse weighed the baby.
($V_T$ + NP)

The second sentence can express the same meaning by being changed to the passive:

The baby was weighed by the nurse.

This transformation is possible in a $V_T$ + NP sentence but not in a V-mid + NP sentence.

The verb have is a middle verb because a sentence with have + NP cannot be made passive.

## VERB PHRASE RULE

The rule for verb phrase can now be expanded in this way:

$$\text{VP} \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{be} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{NP} \\ \text{Adj} \\ \text{Adv-p} \end{array} \right\} \\ \\ \text{verbal} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{verbal} \dashrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_I \\ V_T + \text{NP} \end{array} \right\} + \text{Adv-m} \\ V_s + \text{Adj} \\ V_b + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{NP} \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{V-mid} + \text{NP} \end{array} \right\}$$

**PRACTICE**

Identify the verbal in the following sentences as

a. $V_I$
b. $V_T$ + NP
c. $V_s$ + Adj
d. $V_b$ + NP or Adj
e. V-mid + NP

1. Julia looked beautiful. (c)
2. Mr. Farmer grows vegetables. (b)
3. It costs a fortune. (e)
4. The soup smelled delicious. (c)
5. They left. (a)
6. He became a minister. (d)
7. His father has a car. (e)
8. He repaired the motor. (b)

**AUX**

Another rule for the verb phrase states that every verb phrase must contain Aux. Aux, related to the word auxiliary, must contain tense, present or past. It may also contain other elements which will be described later.

He walks fast. (he + pres. + walk)

In this sentence Aux contains only present tense.

**TENSE**

Here is a partial rule for Aux:

$$\text{Aux} \longrightarrow \text{tense}$$

$$\text{tense} \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{past} \end{array} \right\}$$

**MODAL**

Aux must contain tense. Aux may also contain a structure called a modal (M). The most common modals are shall, will, can, may, must. These are present tense forms. The first four modals also have past tense forms:

past + shall ---- should
past + will ---- would
past + can ---- could
past + may ---- might

Here are morpheme strings representing some verb phrases containing tense + modal:

Bill can help you.
Bill + pres. + can + help + you

Bill could go.
Bill + past + can + go

I should leave.
I + past + shall + leave

**PRACTICE**

Write the sentences represented by the morpheme strings:

1. Bob + pres. + help + the + boy + pl.
   Bob helps the boys.

2. Bill + pres. + can + help + the + team
   Bill can help the team.

3. Jack + past + will + go
   Jack would go.

4. He + past + may + lose + money
   He might lose money.

5. Jane + pres. + must + study
   Jane must study.

The rule for Aux can now be expanded to include an optional modal:

Aux ⟶ tense + (M)

As we continue to expand the verb phrase, you will see that tense is applied to the first word in the verb phrase. If there is a modal in the Aux, that will be the first word, and tense will be applied to it.

she + past + sing + well
She sang well.

she + past + can + sing + well
She could sing well.

## HAVE + PART.

Another structure which may be a part of Aux is illustrated in this sentence:

They have arrived.

## Participle

The form of a verb used after have is called the participle. The participle morpheme is the third inflectional morpheme of verbs. It consists of whatever is done to the verb to form the participle. Most participles end in ed, but many participles are formed irregularly.

part. + walk → walked
part. + hire → hired
part. + carry → carried

part. + write → written
part. + catch → caught
part. + fight → fought
part. + wear → worn

The past tense and participle forms of regular verbs are the same. Some irregular verbs also have identical past and participle forms.

he worked / he has worked
he bought / he has bought

## PRACTICE

Write the sentences represented by the morpheme strings. Remember that pres. + have → have, has and past + have → had.

1. that + man + past + teach + music

2. that + man + pres. + have + part. + teach + music

3. that + man + past + have + part. + teach + music

4. the + boy + past + catch + a + fish

5. the + boy + pres. + have +

   part. + catch + a + fish

6. the + boy + past + have +

   part. + catch + a + fish

NOTE: A diagnostic test would be advisable to determine what oral and written drill with irregular verbs is needed.

Aux may contain both modal and have + part., in that order. In this case tense is applied to the modal:

tense + (M) + (have + part.)

John may have gone.

John + pres. + may + have + part. + go

He could have walked.

he + past + can + have + part. + walk

**PRACTICE**

Write ten verb phrases in which Aux contains modal and have + part.

Example: he must have eaten

**BE + ING**

The last optional structure in Aux in the kernel verb phrase is a form of be followed by the ing form of the verb (be + ing). The inflectional morphemes of verbs are present, past, participle, and ing. In a kernel morpheme string, tense, part. and ing always apply to the word that follows.

he is sleeping

he + pres. + be + ing + sleep

he might be sleeping

he + past + may + be + ing + sleep

he might have been sleeping

he + past + may + have + past. + be

+ ing + sleep

## RULE FOR AUX

The last example sentence contains all the structures included in the complete rule for Aux in a kernel verb phrase:

Aux ⟶ tense + (M) + (have + part.) + (be + ing)

NOTE: Verb phrases containing have + part. are sometimes called perfect forms, and those with be + ing are called progressive forms.

Some students may need help in the spelling rules of such ing forms as

ing + dine ⟶ dining
ing + win ⟶ winning
ing + occur ⟶ occurring

## PRACTICE

Write the sentences represented by the following morpheme strings:

1. he + pres. + have + a + piano
2. Jane + past + be + ing + talk
3. they + pres. + may + have + part. + write
4. she + past + can + be + ing + listen
5. the + movie + pres. + must + have + part. + begin
6. the + child + plural + past + be + ing + play
7. someone + past + shall + have + part. + try
8. some + student + plural + past + may + be + ing + work

# OPEN CLASSES OF WORDS

There are four large open classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs of manner. The term open class means that new words are frequently added to these four classes. For instance, the advent of television brought into our language not only the noun television but also the verb televise.

## INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES

We have learned the eight inflectional morphemes:

nouns: plural, possessive
verbs: present, past, ing, participle
adjectives: comparative, superlative

## DERIVATIONAL MORPHEMES

Derivational morphemes are a larger group consisting of prefixes and suffixes. When added to a base morpheme, they change the word to a different word class or to a different variety of the same class.

| | |
|---|---|
| good | goodness |
| art | artist |

NOTE: The following lists of common derivational morphemes are included for teachers who do not have a textbook which includes lessons in morphology or for teachers who wish to develop their own units.

## NOUN-FORMING MORPHEMES

### Noun-forming Morphemes

writer (-or, -ar)
happiness
cupful
importance (-ence)
department
agency
vision
distraction
communism
communist
community
applicant (ent)

countess
booklet
swordsman
cigarette
gosling
mockery
dictionary
employee
childhood
hardship
kingdom
morphology

**VERB-FORMING MORPHEMES**

## Verb-forming Morphemes

untie
befriend
remake
enfold
darken
liberate
purify
realize (-ise, -yze)

**ADJECTIVE-FORMING MORPHEMES**

## Adjective-forming Morphemes

friendly
thoughtful
hopeless
cloudy
golden
readable (-ible)
urgent (-ant)
communistic
practical
famous
destructive
national
spectacular
selfish
promissory
lonesome
imaginary
separate

**ADVERB-FORMING MORPHEMES**

## Adverb-forming Morphemes

formally
westward
ahead
lengthwise

**BASE MORPHEMES**

NOTE: There are two kinds of base morphemes, free and bound. A free base can be a word by itself; a bound base cannot.

childish (free base)
structure (bound base)

**ALLOMORPHS**

Some morphemes have variations in sound or spelling which are called allomorphs of the morpheme. For instance, the underlined parts of the following words are all allomorphs, or variations, of the same morpheme, which has the meaning not.

incapable
impossible
illegal
irresponsible
ignoble

Teachers will find the following exercise valuable for students on various levels, depending upon the difficulty of the words used.

## PRACTICE

Fill the blank space in each column with a word related to the one given. If you are not sure about a word, try to decide by using it in a sentence:

(The) noun is good.
He verb s (it).
It is very adj. .
He does it adv. .

| NOUN | VERB | ADJECTIVE | ADVERB-m |
|---|---|---|---|
| (width) | (widen) | wide | (widely) |
| length | | | |
| | excite | | |
| | hope | | |
| | create | | |
| beauty | | | |
| | free | | |
| | revere | | |
| | induce | | |
| | | simple | |

## MORE ADVERBIALS

### Adverbials of Place

We have used adverbials of place in the verb phrase after be. They can also occur after a verbal, as in the following sentences:

| | |
|---|---|
| $V_I$ | The teacher stood by the window. |
| $V_T$ + NP | He attended school in Europe. |
| $V_s$ + Adj | He seemed uneasy on the boat. |
| $V_b$ + NP | They became friends in England. |
| $V_b$ + Adj | She became ill on the plane. |
| V-mid + NP | He has her notebook under that desk. |

### Adv. of Frequency

Adverbials that tell how often something happens are called adverbials of frequency. They may be one-word adverbs like often, seldom, frequently or phrases like now and then and every day. Adv-f, in kernel sentences, occurs after both be and verbals:

Jane was happy sometimes.
She smiled often.

A kernel sentence may contain an adverbial of manner as well as an adverbial of frequency:

She studied hard every day.

There may also be an adverbial of place followed by an adverbial of frequency:

They went to the movies often.

### Adverbials of Time

Single words like then, yesterday; prepositional phrases like in a moment, after the lesson; and noun phrases like next week, this morning are called adverbials of time. They usually come after adverbials of frequency if both occur:

We met every day at ten o'clock.
They were there often after school.

All four kinds of adverbials may occur in a kernel sentence in this order: Adv-p, Adv-m, Adv-f, Adv-t.

He goes there willingly often now.

$$VP \longrightarrow Aux + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} be + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} NP \\ Adj \\ Adv\text{-}p \end{array} \right\} + (Adv\text{-}f) + (Adv\text{-}t) \\ \\ verbal \end{array} \right\}$$

## VERB PHRASE RULE FOR KERNEL SENTENCES

$$verbal \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_I \\ \quad + NP \\ V_T \end{array} \right\} \\ \left. \begin{array}{l} V_s + Adj \\ V_b + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} NP \\ Adj \end{array} \right\} \\ V\text{-}mid + NP \end{array} \right\} + (Adv\text{-}p) \end{array} \right\} + (Adv\text{-}f) + (Adv\text{-}t)$$

$V_I \longrightarrow$ occur, arrive (intransitive)

$V_T \longrightarrow$ send, buy (transitive)

$V_s \longrightarrow$ seem, look, taste

$V_b \longrightarrow$ become, remain

V-mid $\longrightarrow$ cost, weigh, have

Adv-m $\longrightarrow$ quickly, happily

Adv-p $\longrightarrow$ here, there

Adv-f $\longrightarrow$ often, always

Adv-t $\longrightarrow$ now, then

## ADVERBIAL SHIFTS

In a kernel sentence, adverbials must occur in the order in which they are given in the rule for verb phrase. However, a characteristic of adverbs is that their position can frequently be shifted. This shifting of words is called a transformation. A sentence with an adverbial not in a kernel position is considered a transform, the result of a transformation.

Sometimes the order in a transform is preferable to that in the kernel. Compare the sentences in these pairs:

He is in the room often.
He is often in the room.

NOTE: Students can profitably practice changing the position of adverbials in sentences and considering what difference the changes make in style or meaning.

Example:

Mr. Jones had regrets frequently.
Frequently Mr. Jones had regrets.
Mr. Jones frequently had regrets.

# TRANSFORMS

## PURPOSE

The objectives of this unit are to help the student, in accordance with his individual needs, to develop the ability:

1. to form and to pronounce according to the rules of standard English grammar the following structures:

    a. questions
    b. negatives
    c. the *there* transform
    d. the passive

2. to form more complicated sentences which involve the combining of two or more kernels through the use of the following structures:

    a. relative clause
    b. other noun phrase modifiers
    c. subordinate clauses
    d. clauses of comparison
    e. substitutes for noun phrases
    f. conjunctions and sentence connectors

3. to identify and use the various structures occurring after transitive and intransitive verbs

4. to make deliberate and effective choices among structures when producing sentences

## INTRODUCTION

The presentation in this unit is directed to the student who has achieved the objectives of the section on the kernel sentence. Many students will need little practice in forming such structures as questions and negatives; however, teachers should find that the material on these structures will provide useful practice for students who use nonstandard or non-English structures.

# SINGLE-BASE TRANSFORMATIONS

## DEFINITIONS

Most of the rules we have studied so far have applied to kernel sentences. They are rules which simply explain what certain words or groups of words may consist of. A single arrow is used in kernel rules only and means *is made up of*.

## TRANSFORMATION

The process by which kernel sentences are made into more complicated ones is called transformation. Transformational rules show how words or groups of words in morpheme strings may be moved about, combined, or deleted. A double arrow is used in transformational rules.

## SINGLE-BASE TRANSFORMATION

The kind of transformation involved in the shift in position of the adverbial of frequency in the following sentences is called a single-base transformation.

He comes often. ⟹ He often comes.

A single-base transformation involves only one main morpheme string in which morphemes may be moved about, added to, or left out.

## QUESTIONS

Questions which can be answered with *yes* or *no* are called yes/no questions. A rule for the transformation of a kernel sentence into a yes/no question (T - yes/no) can be stated from observing the following examples:

The baby should eat. ⟹
Should the baby eat?

The baby had eaten. ⟹
Had the baby eaten?

The baby is eating. ⟹
Is the baby eating?

In these transformations *should* (tense-M), *had* (tense-have), and *is* (tense-be) have changed places with the subject noun phrase.

### T-yes/no

NP + tense-M + X
The baby should eat. ⟹

tense-M + NP + X
Should the baby eat?

The symbol X in this rule stands for whatever comes after a modal, have, or be.

### PRACTICE

Change the following sentences into yes/no questions, and tell whether the resulting transform contains (a) tense-M, (b) tense-have, or (c) tense-be.

__b__ 1. She has forgotten about it.
Has she forgotten about it?
_____ 2. She is president of her class.
_____ 3. They might attend next week.
_____ 4. John has listened attentively.
_____ 5. They could do it later.

### T-do

Changing the kernel sentence "Jack waited" into a yes/no question is a more complicated process; it cannot be done by simply changing the position of the words. If we apply T-yes/no, we find that we do not have anything to which we can attach tense.

Jack + past + wait

past +      + Jack + wait

Therefore the word do is inserted in the question. The word do has no lexical meaning; it simply carries the tense.

past +      + Jack + wait ⟹
past + do + Jack + wait
Did Jack wait?

The rule for the transformation of this kind of kernel sentence to a yes/no question is

NP + tense + verbal ⟹ tense + do + NP + verbal

Therefore a question like "Did Jack wait?" is the result of two transformations: T-yes/no and T-do.

Jack + past + wait ⟹
T-yes/no past + Jack + wait ⟹
T-do past + do + Jack + wait

**PRACTICE**

Apply the yes/no question transformation to the following sentences. If you also have to apply the T-do transformation, underline the word which represents tense + do in your question:

Examples:

They went to town.
Did they go to town?

You are going to town.
Are you going to town?

1. They felt very sad.
2. Someone should have stopped them.
3. Many people refused him.
4. They have answered many questions.
5. The girl was hurt in the accident.
6. He did it.

**T-wh**

A question beginning with where, when, how, or how often is the result of two transformations. The first is T-yes/no:

John was here this morning.
Was John here this morning?

**T-wh, Adv-p**

Then where replaces the adverbial of place and is moved to the beginning of the sentence:

where
Was John ~~here~~ this morning?
Where was John this morning?

He is in the office.
T-yes/no: Is he in the office?
T-wh, Adv-p: Where is he?

INTONATION

For students who are learning English as a second language, it is very important to give particular attention to the intonation, the sound pattern, of sentences. In the kernel sentence there are three levels of the melody of the voice; these are called levels of pitch. We can label the three levels in this way:

PITCH

high --- 3
medium - 2
low ---- 1

STRESS

Another feature of the sound pattern is stress, or loudness. In a kernel sentence there is one syllable which is given primary stress. The sentence begins on medium pitch (2) rises to high (3) on the syllable with primary stress, and falls to low (1) between that syllable and the end of the sentence.

In a Kernel

```
2          3 1
He's going home.
```

```
2          3 1
That's the answer.
```

A T-wh question has the same 3-2-1 intonation pattern as the kernel sentence has.

In T-wh

```
2           3 1
Where is he going?
```

A yes/no question, however, has a 2-3-3 pattern:

In T-yes/no

```
2           3    3
Is that the answer?
```

Read these questions aloud and decide whether each ends on pitch level 1 or 3:

1. Did he come?
2. Where is your notebook?
3. When did you see him?
4. Have you finished the essay?
5. Does John write well?
6. How does John write?

## RULE FOR T-yes/no

The rule for transforming a yes/no question to a T-wh, adverbial of place question, can be expressed this way:

X + Adv-p + Y + 2-3-3 ⇛
where + X + Y + 2-3-1

Remember that X stands for everything that comes before Adv-p, and Y stands for everything that comes after.

X + Adv-p + Y + 2-3-3
Has he gone to school today? ⇛

where + X + Y + 2-3-1
Where has he gone today?

If we omit the word today in the example above, the Y will be a null, and the rule will still apply.

With other interrogative words substituted for where, the same rule will apply to the other T-wh questions which will be described.

## PRACTICE

Apply T-yes/no and then T-wh, Adv-p to the following sentences. If the question ends on high pitch, write (3) after it; if it ends on low, write (1).

Examples:

1. They were in the cafeteria.
T-yes/no
Were they in the cafeteria? (3)
T-wh, Adv-p
Where were they? (1)

2. She wrote her name in the book.
T-yes/no
Did she write her name in the book? (3)
T-wh, Adv-p
Where did she write her name? (1)

1. He could have mowed in the back yard.
2. They will be going to Chicago.
3. Jane is living in the apartment.
4. She studies in the library.
5. John had placed the book on a shelf.
6. We should be working in this room next year.

**T-wh, Adv-t**

If when is substituted for an adverbial of time in a yes/no question, the resulting transform is T-wh, adverbial of time.

when
↓ Did the man arrive ~~early~~?
When did the man arrive?

**T-wh, Adv-m**

The word how replaces an adverbial of manner in a yes/no question to produce a T-wh, adverbial of manner.

how
↓ Did he respond ~~cheerfully~~?
How did he respond?

**T-wh, Adv-f**

When an adverbial of frequency is replaced by how often, the transformation is called T-wh, adverbial of frequency.

how often
↓ Does he work ~~every day~~ at the office?
How often does he work at the office?

**PRACTICE**

Substituting the appropriate interrogative words for the underlined adverbials, transform the following sentences into the kinds of questions indicated:

1. He does his work well. (T-wh, Adv-m)
2. She calls frequently. (T-wh, Adv-f)
3. She is arriving tomorrow. (T-wh, Adv-t)
4. Their papers are on the desk. (T-wh, Adv-p)
5. They will answer soon. (T-wh, Adv-t)

**T-wh, noun phrase**

A similar T-wh transformation substitutes the words who or what for a noun phrase, with who being used for persons and what in other cases. This transformation is called T-wh, noun phrase.

who
~~Mary~~ found the money.
Who found the money?

what
↓ Mary found the ~~money~~.
What did Mary find?

**who + o ⟶ whom**

When who replaces the object of a verb or preposition, it becomes whom.

$\swarrow$———————whom
You called ~~someone~~.
Whom did you call?

$\swarrow$——————————————whom
You were speaking to ~~someone~~.
Whom were you speaking to?
OR
To whom were you speaking?

In ordinary conversation, "Who were you speaking to?" is considered acceptable by most people, but more formal usage would require whom in an object position.

**PRACTICE**

Change the following sentences into questions, substituting whom for the objects:

1. Bill helped his mother.
2. The class elected Jim.
3. The police guarded the prisoner.
4. You see someone.
5. They met the president.

Change into questions, substituting who or whom for the underlined words:

1. Someone came with you.
2. Everyone saw him.
3. The director hired Mr. Whipple.
4. You were talking about somebody.
5. He is waiting for his friend.

**T-negative**

A statement is made negative by the addition of the word not. Let's observe where not is inserted in the following examples:

He will go to college. $\Longrightarrow$
He $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{will not}\\ \text{won't}\end{array}\right\}$ go to college.

He has gone. $\Longrightarrow$
He $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{has not}\\ \text{hasn't}\end{array}\right\}$ gone.

He is going. $\Longrightarrow$
He $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{is not}\\ \text{isn't}\end{array}\right\}$ going.

We see that *not* comes after *tense-M*, *tense-have*, or *tense-be*. However, if the verb phrase contains tense + verbal, the T-do transformation must be used:

He goes to college.
he + pres. + go + to + college ⟹
he + pres. +     + not + go + to + college ⟹
he + pres. + do + not + go + to + college
He $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{does not}\\ \text{doesn't}\end{matrix}\right\}$ go to college.

Notice the difference in the position of *not* in a negative question when a contraction is used:

Will he *not* go?
Wo*n't* he go?

Has he *not* gone?
Has*n't* he gone?

Is he *not* going?
Is*n't* he going?

Does he *not* go?
Does*n't* he go?

PRACTICE

Make the following sentences negative:

1. Did she agree to write it?
   Didn't she agree to write it?
2. Has he a chance? (two ways)
3. They will help us.
4. Do the students study hard?
5. Have you written the letter?
6. He understood the assignment.

T-there

Another common single-base transformation involves a change like this:

A boy was in the room. ⟹
There was a boy in the room.

Twenty students are in the class. ⟹
There are twenty students in the class.

This transformation is called T-there. T-there can be applied if the kernel sentence contains Aux + be + Adv-p. The noun phrase which functions as the subject usually consists of D + N, but the determiner cannot be a definite article or a demonstrative.

Keeping in mind the limitations on the kind of NP involved, we can state the rule for T-there in this way:

**RULE FOR T-there**

NP + Aux + be + Adv-p
There + Aux + be + NP + Adv-p

The there in T-there does not have any lexical meaning; it is not an adverbial of place meaning "in that place." A sentence like "There was Mary" is the result of a different kind of transformation involving only changes in the position of the words in the kernel sentence "Mary was there." In this case there is an adverb of place.

**PRACTICE**

Apply T-there to the following:

1. A woman was behind the desk.
2. Some boys were outside.
3. An apple is on the shelf.
4. Spots were on the dress.
5. Many passengers were on the plane.
6. Frogs were in the yard.

**T-passive**

One more transformation which can result from moving morphemes around in a sentence and adding or taking out other morphemes is the passive transformation. T-passive is applied to sentences which contain transitive verb + object.

Everyone admires Dr. Bright. ⇛
Dr. Bright is admired by everyone.

By placing the symbols above each sentence, we can determine the rule for T-passive:

$NP_1$ + Aux + $V_T$ + $NP_2$
Everyone admires Dr. Bright. ⇛

$NP_2$ + Aux + be + part. + $V_T$ + (by + $NP_1$)
Dr. Bright is admired by everyone.

$$NP_1 + Aux + V_T + NP_2 \Longrightarrow$$

$$NP_2 + Aux + be + part. + V_T + (by + NP_1)$$

The noun phrase which is the object in the kernel sentence becomes the subject in the transform. The parentheses enclosing by + NP indicate that this part of the construction may be left out:

> Somebody has sold the house. ⟹
> The house has been sold.

**PRACTICE**

Write ten sentences containing $V_T$ + NP and transform each to the passive.

# DOUBLE-BASE TRANSFORMATIONS

## DEFINITIONS

The transformations described so far have been single-base transformations involving the shifting, adding, or omitting of morphemes in a single morpheme string. There is another kind, called a double-base transformation, in which morphemes from two strings are put together. It involves changing the structure of one sentence, called the insert, and inserting it into another sentence, called the matrix.

## RELATIVE CLAUSE

Two sentences which contain the same noun phrase may sometimes be combined by transforming one of the sentences into a noun phrase modified by a relative clause and inserting it into the other sentence.

Insert: The boy saw the accident.

the boy who saw the accident
Matrix: ~~The boy~~ will testify in court.

Result: The boy who saw the accident
will testify in court.

In the result sentence, who saw the accident is a relative clause which modifies the noun phrase the boy. The boy who saw the accident is an expanded noun phrase which functions as the subject of the predicate will testify in court.

The relative pronoun who is used as a substitute for a noun phrase functioning as a subject when the noun phrase refers to a person; which is used to refer to nonpersons. The relative pronoun that may also be used in the example sentence:

The boy $\begin{Bmatrix}\text{who}\\ \text{that}\end{Bmatrix}$ saw the accident
will testify in court.

Read the sentence aloud. Notice that you hear only one slight pause, which comes at the end of the word accident. There is no obligatory pause before the relative pronoun. A relative clause of this kind is not set off from the rest of the sentence by any punctuation marks.

The first part of the rule for the relative clause transformation, called T-relative, involves only the changing of an insert sentence into a noun phrase modified by relative clause.

### RULE FOR T-relative

$$X + NP + Y \Rightarrow NP + \begin{Bmatrix}\text{who}\\ \text{that}\\ \text{which}\end{Bmatrix} + X + Y$$

X + NP + Y
Insert: The boy saw the accident.

$$\overset{NP}{\text{the boy}} + \begin{Bmatrix}\text{who}\\ \text{that}\end{Bmatrix} + \overset{X}{\emptyset} + \overset{Y}{\text{saw the accident}}$$

the boy who saw the accident
Matrix: ~~The boy~~ will testify in court.

Result: The boy who saw the accident will testify in court.

Remember that X stands for whatever comes before the noun phrase, and Y stands for whatever comes after the noun phrase. If there is nothing before the NP, as in the example sentence, X is null.

The complete rule for inserting the expanded noun phrase into the matrix sentence is quite complicated, but the process itself is quite simple. The expanded noun phrase is substituted for the noun phrase in the matrix sentence.

### CHARACTERISTICS OF RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

Another characteristic of the clause who saw the accident is that it is necessary in the sentence in order to identify which boy will testify. This kind of clause is called a restrictive relative clause. To summarize, the following are characteristics of a restrictive relative clause:

1. The relative pronoun that may be used interchangeably with who or which.
2. There is usually a slight pause at the end of the clause and no obligatory pause before it.
3. The clause restricts or identifies the meaning of the noun phrase which it modifies.

4. The clause is not separated from the rest of the sentence by any punctuation marks.

## PRACTICE

Using the subject as NP, transform each sentence into an expanded noun phrase modified by a relative clause.

1. The boy was eating an apple.
   the boy who was eating an apple
2. A flower was blooming.
3. An apple was sour.
4. A friend arrived early.
5. The car needed gas.
6. A person could speak French.
7. The train was late.
8. A book fell.

Apply the relative clause transformation and write the result sentence.

1. Insert: The destroyer was in port.
   Matrix: The destroyer was being painted.
   Result: The destroyer which was in port was being painted.

2. Insert: A lawyer talked to Aunt Mabel.
   Matrix: A lawyer said that the situation was serious.

3. Insert: A passenger was carrying a gun.
   Matrix: A passenger approached the captain.

4. Insert: The boy was hurt in the accident.
   Matrix: The boy will recover completely.

5. Insert: The trees were planted in the yard.
   Matrix: The trees are bearing fruit.

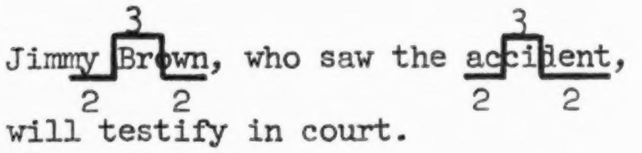
## NONRESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

When the noun phrase involved in a relative clause transformation is a proper noun, the transformation is somewhat different. Compare the following example with the one used for the restrictive relative clause:

Insert: Jimmy Brown saw the accident.
Jimmy Brown, who saw the accident,
Matrix: ~~Jimmy-Brown~~ will testify in court.

Result: Jimmy Brown, who saw the
        accident, will testify in court.

When you read the result sentence aloud, you hear a change in pitch to level 3 and back to level 2, both on the word Jimmy and on accident. This change in pitch is shown by commas in writing.



A relative clause of this type is called a nonrestrictive relative clause. In the example sentence, the clause is not necessary to identify Jimmy Brown. A nonrestrictive clause may also occur after a common noun if it is not needed for identification purposes. Consider this sentence:

> My mother, who has been visiting friends in New York, will return home this evening.

In this case the relative clause is nonrestrictive because I have only one mother and the clause is not needed to identify her.

Note the difference in meaning between these two sentences:

> His car, which was in the garage, was stolen last night.
>
> His car which was in the garage was stolen last night.

The intonation and punctuation in the first sentence indicate that he had only one car; in the second sentence we understand that he had more than one car.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF NONRESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSES

The nonrestrictive clause, then, differs from the restrictive in the following respects:

1. The relative pronoun that cannot be substituted for who or which. (This is a useful test in determining whether to use commas before and after the clause. If that can be used as the relative pronoun, no commas are used.)
2. There is a 2-3-2 change in the intonation pattern before and at the end of the clause.
3. The information in the clause is not needed to identify the person or thing named in the noun phrase.
4. A nonrestrictive clause is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

PRACTICE

Change each sentence into an expanded noun phrase, and use commas to mark the intonation breaks. Use the proper noun as the NP.

Example: John should have left earlier.
John, who should have left earlier,

1. Jane was carrying the picnic basket.
2. Susie is very sensitive.
3. Miss Plumb teaches Spanish.
4. Joe Bascom is on the football team.
5. Miami has a cosmopolitan population.
6. Miami River empties into Biscayne Bay.
7. Cheryl always works hard.
8. Mr. Briggs speaks five languages.

Apply the relative clause transformation to combine the two sentences. Decide whether the relative clause is restrictive or nonrestrictive, and punctuate accordingly.

1. Insert: Randolph had a leading role in the play.
   Matrix: Randolph is in the hospital.

2. Insert: The man was scheduled to speak.
   Matrix: The man arrived an hour late.

3. Insert: His plane had encountered bad weather.
   Matrix: His plane arrived an hour late.

4. Insert: His father was born in Greece.
   Matrix: His father is spending the summer in Europe.

5. Insert: A salesman waited on her.
   Matrix: A salesman was very persuasive.

## RELATIVE PRONOUN, OBJECT OF VERB

When the noun phrase which is to be expanded is the object of the verb, the relative pronoun whom is used in referring to persons.

### Restrictive clause

Insert: He hired the man.

$$\text{the man} \left\{\begin{array}{c}\text{whom}\\ \text{that}\\ \emptyset\end{array}\right\} \text{he hired}$$

Matrix: ~~The man~~ is a refugee.

$$\text{Result: The man} \left\{\begin{array}{c}\text{whom}\\ \text{that}\\ \emptyset\end{array}\right\} \text{he hired is a refugee.}$$

The null symbol $\emptyset$ in this case means that the relative pronoun functioning as a direct object may be omitted.

Here is an example of a T-relative when the NP refers to a nonperson:

Insert: We studied the novel in class.

$$\text{the novel} \left\{\begin{array}{c}\text{which}\\ \text{that}\\ \emptyset\end{array}\right\} \text{we studied in class}$$

Matrix: The novel is about mountain climbing.

Result: The novel which we studied in class is about mountain climbing.

### PRACTICE

Transform each sentence into an expanded noun phrase three times, taking the object as the NP. Use whom or which in the first, that in the second, and $\emptyset$ in the third.

Example: We met a man.
a. a man whom we met
b. a man that we met
c. a man we met

1. I was reading a book.
2. The cat caught the bird.
3. The manager hired the man for the job.
4. Jerry likes a pretty girl.
5. I met a woman at the meeting.

**Nonrestrictive**

Here are examples of T-relative in nonrestrictive clauses in which the relative pronoun is the object of the verb:

Insert: I met Mrs. Burns at the conference.
Mrs. Burns, whom I met at the conference,
Matrix: ~~Mrs. Burns~~ has twin daughters.

Result: Mrs. Burns, whom I met at the conference, has twin daughters.

Insert: We studied Banners in the Sky recently.
Banners in the Sky, which we studied recently,
Matrix: ~~Banners in the Sky~~ is a novel about mountain climbing.

Result: Banners in the Sky, which we studied recently, is a novel about mountain climbing.

**PRACTICE**

Use the relative clause transformation to combine the two sentences. Be sure to punctuate correctly.

1. Insert: They had invited Robert to the party.
   Matrix: Robert was unable to come.

2. Insert: She was comforting Susan.
   Matrix: Susan had just failed a test.

3. Insert: We like Mr. Watkins very much.
   Matrix: Mr. Watkins will be the new coach.

4. Insert: They enjoyed Spain very much.
   Matrix: Spain was the last country on their itinerary.

5. Insert: I admire Mr. Frank greatly.
   Matrix: Mr. Frank has been made manager of the department.

## RELATIVE PRONOUN, OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

The rule that changes sentences into noun phrases expanded by relative clauses also applies when the noun phrase is the object of a preposition:

Insert: $\underline{\overset{X}{\text{I gave my}}\ \text{book to}\ \overset{NP}{\text{the girl}}}\overset{Y}{.}\ \Longrightarrow$

$$\text{the girl} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{whom} \\ \text{that} \\ \emptyset \end{Bmatrix} \text{I gave my book to}$$

Matrix: ~~The girl~~ is absent today.

Result: $\text{The girl} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{whom} \\ \text{that} \\ \emptyset \end{Bmatrix} \text{I gave my book to}$

is absent today.

Another variation of this transformation follows the rule:

$$X + \text{Prep} + NP + Y \Longrightarrow NP + \text{Prep} + \begin{Bmatrix} \text{who} + \text{o} \\ \text{which} \end{Bmatrix} + X + Y$$

In this case the following sentence would result:

> The girl to whom I gave my book is absent today.

When this kind of clause is nonrestrictive, it follows the same intonation pattern and punctuation as other nonrestrictive relative clauses.

## PRACTICE

Transform each sentence into an expanded noun phrase in three different ways using the object of the preposition as the NP.

Example: I was speaking to the boy.
a. the boy whom I was speaking to
b. the boy I was speaking to
c. the boy to whom I was speaking

1. He worked with a man.
2. They were talking about the book.
3. I received a letter from a friend.
4. They live in the house.
5. The article was written by a student.

## RELATIVE PRONOUN POSSESSIVE

When a relative pronoun replaces a noun phrase + possessive, the possessive morpheme is transferred from the noun to the relative pronoun.

who + poss. ⟶ whose

                         girl + poss.
Insert: I borrowed the girl's book.

          who + poss.
          the girl whose book I borrowed
Matrix: ~~The girl~~ is absent today.

Result: The girl whose book I borrowed is absent today.

## PRACTICE

Combine the following sentences in this way:

Insert: The boy's bike was stolen.
Matrix: The boy called the police.
Result: The boy whose bike was stolen called the police.

1. Insert: The girl's painting won first prize.
   Matrix: The girl burst into tears.

2. Insert: The boy's hair is so long.
   Matrix: The boy can't afford a haircut.

3. Insert: Mr. Beck's picture is in the paper.
   Matrix: Mr. Beck has received a promotion.

4. Insert: He found the man's wallet.
   Matrix: The man gave him a reward.

5. Insert: He married the man's daughter.
   Matrix: The man is president of the company.

## RELATIVE ADVERBS

The words where and when are called relative adverbs when they are substituted in a transformation for adverbials of place and time. Clauses introduced by where and when can be used to expand noun phrases.

where
Insert: Edison lived ~~in-the-house~~.
Matrix: The house is a museum.
Result: The house where Edison lived
is a museum.

when
Insert: You arrived ~~on-that-day~~.
Matrix: That was the day.
Result: That was the day when you arrived.

## NOUN PHRASE MODIFIERS, RESTRICTIVE

One can often produce a more effective sentence by leaving out a part of a relative clause. The rule states that in a construction which includes a noun phrase followed by relative pronoun + tense + be + anything else, the relative pronoun and the form of be may be deleted.

## ADVERBIALS OF PLACE

One kind of structure which may remain as a noun modifier after deletion of relative pronoun + tense + be is an adverbial of place.

The boy ~~who-is~~ outside is selling tomatoes.
Result: The boy outside is selling tomatoes.

The boy ~~who-is~~ at the door is selling tomatoes.
Result: The boy at the door is selling tomatoes.

In the result sentences above, the words outside and at the door are adverbials of place which modify the noun boy.

Sometimes, but not always, an adverb of place modifying a noun can be moved to the pre-noun position:

an apartment upstairs ⟹
an upstairs apartment

a stairway outside ⟹
an outside stairway

## PRACTICE

In the following sentences, delete relative pronoun + tense + be and write the result sentence.

1. The book which is on the floor is Jim's.
2. The boys who are on the team should report to the locker room.
3. The cat that is in the tree is watching a bluejay.
4. The students who were in the hall were very noisy.
5. The rooms that are upstairs are quite small.

Write ten sentences like those above and delete relative pronoun + tense + be.

## ADJECTIVE

When relative pronoun + tense + be is deleted before a single adjective, the adjective is moved to a position before the noun.

A person ~~who is~~ capable is needed for the job.
A capable person is needed for the job.

Sometimes the adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase, in which case the position is not changed.

A student ~~who is~~ interested in college should plan his program carefully.
A student interested in college should plan his program carefully.

## PRACTICE

In the following sentences delete relative pronoun + tense + be and write the result sentence. Underline the adjective + prepositional phrase which becomes the noun modifier.

1. This would be a good opportunity for a boy who is ambitious.
2. Anyone who is concerned about education should read that book.
3. A person who is angry may act too hastily.
4. A student who is dependent upon his own financial resources will have a difficult time.
5. Anyone who is tired of this project may suggest a better one.

## THE *ing* FORM

Here is an example of what happens when *relative pronoun + tense + be* is deleted:

> The child ~~who-was~~ weeping had fallen off his bicycle.

If only the *ing* form follows *be* in the relative clause, the *ing* form usually is moved to the position before the noun.

Notice the difference between the *ing* forms in these two sentences:

> She was carrying a *crying* baby.
> She had a *charming* daughter.

The difference becomes clear when we transform the *ing* word back to the relative clause:

> She was carrying a baby who was crying.
> She had a daughter who was charming.

In the first relative clause, *crying* is the verb; in the second, *charming* is an adjective. Modifiers like *charming* are originally derived from verbs but now have the characteristics of adjectives. We can say "who was very charming," but we cannot use *very* before *crying*.

If the relative clause contains *be + ing + something else*, the deletion results in an *ing* phrase modifying the noun.

> A boy ~~who-was~~ running very fast came around the corner.

The *ing* phrase *running very fast* modifies the noun boy.

Sometimes an *ing* phrase modifier results from a slightly different transformation. In a sequence of *relative pronoun + tense + verb*, the tense is replaced by *ing*.

> *Everyone knowing the answer* raised his hand.

The ing phrase in the example sentence results from the following transformation:

who knew the answer
who + past + know + the + answer $\Longrightarrow$

~~who~~ + ing + know + the + answer
knowing the answer

### PRACTICE

Delete relative pronoun + tense + be and use the resulting expanded noun phrase in three different sentences. In the first sentence use the noun phrase as subject, in the second as object of the verb, and in the third as object of the preposition.

Example:

a man ~~who was~~ working in the yard
a. A man working in the yard found the treasure.
b. She saw a man working in the yard.
c. She spoke to a man working in the yard.

1. a lady who was walking down the street
2. some wasps that were building a nest
3. a child who was swinging on a gate
4. the snow which was covering the ground

NOTE: An explanation of an ing phrase following an object of a verb will be given under Subdivisions of $V_T$, $V_t$-5.

### PARTICIPLE

When relative pronoun + tense + be is deleted in a clause ending in a participle, the participle usually is moved to a position before the noun.

The boy ~~who was~~ injured is in the hospital.

When the relative clause contains be + part. + something else, the deletion of relative pronoun + tense + be results in a participial phrase which modifies the noun.

The boy ~~who was~~ injured in the accident is in the hospital.

Note that again there is a difference between two structures which seem to be alike:

the injured boy
the tired boy

In the first example the modifier *injured* is a participle resulting from the following transformations:

Kernel: Something injured the boy. ⟹
T-passive: The boy was injured (by something). ⟹
T-relative: The boy who was injured ⟹
T-relative, deletion: the boy injured ⟹
T-noun modifier: the injured boy

The noun phrase *the tired boy* results from:

The boy is tired. ⟹
the boy who is tired ⟹
the tired boy

In this case *tired* is an adjective. We may modify *tired* with an intensifier like *very*, but before the participle *injured* we would use some adverb like *badly*.

**PRACTICE**

Delete *relative pronoun + tense + be* and use each resulting structure in a sentence in which the noun phrase is

a. the subject
b. the object of the verb
c. the object of a preposition

Example:

the tree house ~~that was~~ built by the boys

a. The tree house built by the boys is made of scrap lumber.
b. The girls admired the tree house built by the boys.
c. The parents objected to the tree house built by the boys.

1. the man who was seen by Ralph
2. the boy who was stung by the bee
3. the cat that was hit by the car
4. some tricks which were performed by the elephant
5. a soldier who was decorated by the general

Delete relative pronoun + tense + be and identify the remaining noun modifier as

- a. an adverbial of place
- b. an ing phrase
- c. a participial phrase
- d. an adjective modified by a prepositional phrase

1. some people who were waiting for the elevator
2. a book that was purchased by my brother
3. an employee who is uneasy about the outcome
4. a boy who was sitting on the curb
5. a building that is across the street
6. the robber who was caught by the police
7. the children that were outside
8. the soldiers that were attacking the town

## RESULT OF DELETION IN NONRESTRICTIVE CLAUSES

NOTE: Since the material on the nonrestrictive relative clause has been presented in some detail, this section will simply present examples for some of the structures which should be taught.

When deletion of relative pronoun + tense + be takes place in a nonrestrictive relative clause, the results are sometimes different from those we have seen in a restrictive clause.

## ADJECTIVE

Restrictive:

A mother ~~who is~~ anxious often looks for difficulties.

An anxious mother often looks for difficulties.

Nonrestrictive:

Mrs. Block, ~~who was~~ anxious, called the school. ⟹
Anxious, Mrs. Block called the school.

A one-word nonrestrictive modifier, unlike the restrictive, may occupy either position, before or after the NP.

T-sentence modifier

Nonrestrictive modifiers are called sentence modifiers. A nonrestrictive phrase may come before the NP as well as after it. The transformation which moves the nonrestrictive modifier to the position before the NP is called T-sentence modifier. The 2-3-2 intonation pattern of the modifier remains the same. Here are examples of the application of T-sentence modifier to various nonrestrictive modifiers:

ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

$\text{Mrs. Block, }\overset{2}{\text{anxious}}\text{ about her }\overset{3\ 2}{\text{son}}\text{,}$
called the school. ⟹
$\overset{2}{\text{Anxious}}\text{ about her }\overset{3\ 2}{\text{son}}\text{, Mrs. Block}$
called the school.

ADVERBIAL OF PLACE

My mother, downstairs, was preparing dinner. ⟹
Downstairs, my mother was preparing dinner.

Mary, in the next room, was watching television. ⟹
In the next room, Mary was watching television.

THE ing FORM
THE ing PHRASE

The teacher, smiling, handed him the paper. ⟹
Smiling, the teacher handed him the paper.

The teacher, smiling at Jack, handed him the paper. ⟹
Smiling at Jack, the teacher handed him the paper.

PARTICIPLE AND PARTICIPIAL PHRASE

The child, ignored, sat alone. ⟹
Ignored, the child sat alone.

The child, ignored by the others, sat alone. ⟹
  Ignored by the others, the child sat alone.

### APPOSITIVE

When the verb phrase in a nonrestrictive clause consists of be + NP, the deletion of relative pronoun + tense + be results in a structure called an appositive.

Mr. Graves, ~~who is~~ the state attorney, will prosecute. ⟹
  Mr. Graves, the state attorney, will prosecute.

In the above example, the state attorney is an appositive and is said to be in apposition with Mr. Graves.

Although the sentence modifier transformation is not so common for the appositive as it is for other structures, it does occur sometimes.

Sylvia, a very pretty girl, hopes for a career as an actress. ⟹
  A very pretty girl, Sylvia hopes for a career as an actress.

### DANGLING MODIFIERS

A dangling modifier is a rather common ungrammatical structure which results when the speaker or writer makes incorrectly the transformation from two kernel sentences to a complex sentence. Consider this example:

> Driving through the countryside, the scenery was beautiful.

As the sentence is constructed, the kernel sentence underlying the ing phrase would have to be "The scenery was driving through the countryside."

### PRACTICE

Write the sentence underlying the dangling modifier as the sentence is constructed.

> Example:
>
> Encouraged by his parents, the future seemed brighter.
> The future was encouraged by his parents.

1. Flying across the room, Grandmother saw a bird.
2. A policeman knocked on the door not wearing a uniform.
3. Working mainly with oils, the artist's work became well known.
4. Rushing to finish the job, lunch was forgotten.
5. Raining constantly, the picnic was spoiled.
6. Having many things on his mind, the money seemed unimportant.
7. Gazing into her eyes, the car ran off the road.
8. Being ill in bed, the bird was a pleasure to her.

## SUBORDINATE CLAUSES AS SENTENCE MODIFIERS

A sentence can be transformed into a subordinate clause by putting a subordinator before it.

He comes. ⇛
If he comes

Besides if, some other subordinators are whether, although, unless, though, whereas, provided (that), while, before, after, because, and so that.

A subordinate clause can be joined to a matrix sentence and then modifies the matrix. The kind of meaning indicated by the subordinate clause in the following sentences is given:

He must prove his statement
before they will believe it. (Time)

He will go to the party
if you go. (Condition)

He needs the money because he is
going to college. (Cause)

He is working hard so that he can
go to college. (Purpose)

He acted as though he wanted to
come. (Manner)

### AFTER THE MATRIX

In sentences like the examples above, in which the subordinate clause follows the matrix, there frequently is no comma before the subordinate clause. However, a comma is generally used when the subordinator is although, though, whereas, and provided (that).

> Our opponents have a very strong team, although their school is quite small.

Three words, while, since, and as have two different meanings. When they mean one thing, they introduce restrictive clauses and are not preceded by commas; when they mean the other, they introduce nonrestrictive clauses and are preceded by commas. Note the difference in intonation.

Jane is staying with her grandmother while she finishes school. (Time)
Jane has dark hair and eyes, while her sister is very blond. (Contrast)

He left the meeting as the speaker started to talk. (Time)
He left the meeting early, as he had another appointment. (Cause)

Mrs. Bragg has felt much better since she had the operation. (Time)
Mrs. Bragg is feeling better, since she recently had an operation. (Cause)

### BEFORE THE MATRIX

When the subordinate clause comes before the matrix, it is usually followed by a comma, even if the clause is restrictive.

> I won't go if you don't want me to leave.
> If you don't want me to leave, I won't go.

### PRACTICE

Transform the insert sentence into a subordinate clause and join it to the matrix, choosing a subordinator according to the meaning of the two sentences. For each pair of sentences, write two sentences, one with the subordinate clause following the matrix and one with it before. Consider the punctuation carefully.

Example:

Insert: He couldn't go to college.
Matrix: He enlisted in the Navy.
Result:
a. He enlisted in the Navy because he couldn't go to college.
b. Because he couldn't go to college, he enlisted in the Navy.

1. Insert: The weather looked threatening.
   Matrix: We decided not to go to the beach.

2. Insert: They arrive after lunch.
   Matrix: They will miss the speeches.

3. Insert: His brother is in prison for embezzlement.
   Matrix: John is a successful accountant.

4. Insert: He is not well.
   Matrix: He reports to work every day.

5. Insert: He was valedictorian of his class.
   Matrix: He was offered several scholarships.

**WITHIN THE MATRIX**

Frequently subordinate clauses may also be placed within the matrix.

You may, if you wish, go to the meeting with us.

**RELATIVE CLAUSES AS SENTENCE MODIFIERS**

Relative clauses introduced by the relative adverbs when, whenever, where, and wherever may be used as sentence modifiers.

whenever
Insert: He saw her ~~at various times~~.
Matrix: He looked embarrassed.
Result: Whenever he saw her, he looked embarrassed.

where
Insert: The house stood ~~there~~.
Matrix: A factory is being built.
Result: A factory is being built where the house stood.

The word as sometimes replaces an adverbial of time.

Insert: He was leaving the house ~~then~~ as.
Matrix: A car drove up.
Result: A car drove up as he was leaving the house.

### DELETION IN SUBORDINATE AND RELATIVE CLAUSES

In a subordinate or relative clause containing a form of be, the subject + be can often be deleted.

When ~~he is~~ in Rome, he will visit relatives.

While ~~he was~~ waiting for the movie to start, he ate two bags of popcorn.

When ~~it is~~ necessary, I can be careful about finances.

### RULE

The rule for this deletion transformation is

$$\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{subordinator}\\ \text{relative adverb}\end{matrix}\right\} + NP + \text{tense} + be + X \Longrightarrow$$

$$\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{subordinator}\\ \text{relative adverb}\end{matrix}\right\} + X$$

### CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

In the comparative transformation, two sentences which include the same adjective or adverb are put together with the addition of the comparative morpheme and the word than.

Insert: His brother is tall.
Matrix: John is tall.
Result: John is taller than his brother (is) ~~tall~~.

The deletion of tall in the result sentence is obligatory; the deletion of is is optional.

### PRACTICE

Write result sentences for the following, making the obligatory deletion and showing the optional deletion by the use of parentheses.

1. Insert: I am old.
Matrix: My brother is old.
Result: My brother is older than I (am).

2. Insert: He is tall.
Matrix: His sister is tall. __

3. Insert: We are rich.
Matrix: They are rich.

4. Insert: She is young.
Matrix: Her brother is young.

5. Insert: I am brave.
Matrix: You are brave.

Other clauses of comparison are formed by using *more* ... *than* or *as* ... *as*.

Insert: Her sister is beautiful. } →
Matrix: She is beautiful. } →
Result: She is more beautiful than her sister (is).

Insert: The book is good. } →
Matrix: The movie is good. } →
Result: The movie is as good as the book (is).

## SUBSTITUTES FOR NOUN PHRASES

### SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

In some double-base transformations, the transformed insert sentence substitutes for a noun phrase in the matrix. One transform which can function in this way is a subordinate clause. The subordinator *that* is used most commonly to introduce a subordinate clause functioning as a substitute for a noun phrase.

Insert: The story is true.
Matrix: NP + cannot be proved.
Result: *That + the story is true* + cannot be proved.
(subject)

Insert: The story is true.
Matrix: I know + NP.
Result: I know + *that + the story is true*.
(object)

Insert: The story is true.
Matrix: My opinion is + NP.
Result: My opinion is + *that + the story is true*.
(complement)

Insert: The story is true.
Matrix: I am certain + NP.
Result: I am certain + *that + the story is true*.
(adjective complement)

In the last result sentence, the clause *that the story is true* functions as a complement of the adjective *certain*.

The ways in which the subordinator *that* differs from the relative pronoun *that* can be observed in these two sentences.

I know *that* he will come. (subordinator)
The letter *that* I received is from my sister. (relative pronoun)

The subordinator *that* has no particular meaning and serves only to introduce the clause; it has no function within the insert sentence "he will come." The relative pronoun *that* occupies a noun position in the clause. The relative clause is a transform from "I received the letter" and *that* functions as the object of the verb *received*. The clause which it introduces is a modifier of the noun phrase *the letter*. In both sentences *that* can be deleted.

### PRACTICE

Write result sentences using that as a subordinator. Identify the subordinate clause as subject, object, complement, or adjective complement.

1. Insert: You will come.
   Matrix: I hope + NP.

2. Insert: He had been ill.
   Matrix: His excuse was + NP.

3. Insert: He intends to stay.
   Matrix: NP + is very evident.

4. Insert: The school was too crowded.
   Matrix: The reason for the change was + NP.

5. Insert: He is always right.
   Matrix: He thinks + NP.

6. Insert: You can come.
   Matrix: I'm happy + NP.

Some sentences in which the subordinate clause functions as the subject are more commonly transformed in this way:

> That he intends to stay is evident. ⇒
> It is evident that he intends to stay.
>
> That he is guilty seems obvious. ⇒
> It seems obvious that he is guilty.

### RELATIVE CLAUSE

Relative clauses, which we have used as noun modifiers, may also be substituted for noun phrases. The words where and when can be called relative adverbs when they are used to replace adverbials in the insert sentence. Here are transformations in which relative clauses introduced by relative adverbs serve as substitutes for noun phrases:

#### With Relative Adverb

Insert: I met her somewhere.
Matrix: I don't remember + NP.
Result: I don't remember where I met her.

Insert: I met her then.
Matrix: I don't remember + NP.
Result: I don't remember when I met her.

### PRACTICE

Make result sentences, replacing the underlined adverbials in the insert sentence with when or where. Identify the function of the clause as subject, object, complement, or adjective complement.

Insert: She works there.
Matrix: This is + NP.

Insert: The guests will arrive sometime.
Matrix: I don't know + NP.

Insert: The actress was born sometime.
Matrix: NP + is a secret.

Insert: She lives somewhere.
Matrix: That is + NP.

Insert: The business is located somewhere.
Matrix: I'm not certain + NP.

NOTE: The words how and why are usually classified along with when and where as relative adverbs when they introduce clauses which function as noun substitutes.

Do you know how it happened?
I know why he did it.

In order to explain why as an adverbial, the categories of adverbials would have to be enlarged to include a for some reason category.

### With Relative Pronoun

A relative clause introduced by a relative pronoun may also function as a substitute for a noun phrase. The pronouns who (subject) and whom (object) replace a noun phrase referring to a person. When the noun phrase does not refer to a person, what is used.

who
Insert: ~~Someone~~ did it.
Matrix: I know + NP.
Result: I know who did it.

whom
Insert: You blame ~~someone~~.
Matrix: I know + NP.
Result: I know whom you blame.

what
Insert: You mean ~~something~~.
Matrix: I know + NP.
Result: I know what you mean.

The word which is used instead of who or what when one of two or more of something is indicated.

He wants to know which you chose,
the blue or the green dress.

He wants to know which you saw,
Joan or Eve.

The morpheme ever is added to who, whom, and what in sentences like these:

Insert: Someone wins the game.
Matrix: NP + will receive a trophy.
Result: Whoever wins the game will receive a trophy.

Insert: Someone does best.
Matrix: I'll give the prize to + NP.
Result: I'll give the prize to whoever does best.

Insert: You select someone.
Matrix: Someone will get the prize.
Result: Whomever you select will get the prize.

PRACTICE

Make result sentences, replacing the underlined noun phrases with the appropriate relative pronoun.

1. Insert: You need something.
   Matrix: I know + NP.

2. Insert: John did it.
   Matrix: I discovered + NP.

3. Insert: He likes Jean.
   Matrix: I can tell you + NP.

4. Insert: Something happened.
   Matrix: Do you remember + NP.

5. Insert: Somebody needs help.
   Matrix: NP + should see the counselor.

T-for...to

Another way that an insert sentence can be embedded in a noun phrase position in a matrix is by the use of the words for and to:

Insert: John stops smoking.
Matrix: NP + is difficult.
Result: For John to stop smoking is difficult.

The rule for transforming the insert in this way is this:

Rule

NP + tense + X ⟹ for + NP + to + X

As Subject

The word to replaces the tense, and for precedes the NP subject.

$$\overset{\text{NP}}{\text{John}} + \overset{\text{tense}}{\text{pres.}} + \overset{\text{X}}{\text{stop + smoking}} \Longrightarrow$$

For + John + to + stop + smoking

This transformation rule is called T-for ... to. The part of the structure which consists of to + verb is called an infinitive.

If the subject in the insert sentence is a personal pronoun, the object form is used after for.

PRACTICE

Apply T-for ... to to the insert sentence and write the result sentence.

Example:

Insert: He was sarcastic.
He + past + be + sarcastic
For + him + to + be + sarcastic

Matrix: NP + was unusual.
Result: For him to be sarcastic was unusual.

1. Insert: The plan succeeds.
   Matrix: NP + will require much efort.

2. Insert: He does that.
   Matrix: NP + would be inexcusable

3. Insert: Miss Burns says that.
   Matrix: NP + is unfair.

4. Insert: I get there on time.
   Matrix: NP + is impossible.

5. Insert: Jane talks about it.
   Matrix: NP + is unwise.

**As Complement**

The for ... to construction can also function as a complement, as in the following examples:

The plan is for Jean to bring the lunch.
Mr. Bloom's hope was for his son to be a doctor.

**Deletion**

If T- for ... to is applied to sentences in which the subject is repeated, the result sentence is ungrammatical and a deletion of for + NP is obligatory.

Insert: The girls give a party.
Matrix: The girls' plan is + NP.
Result: The girls' plan is to give a party.

An optional deletion can take place when the subject of the insert is not necessary to the meaning.

> ~~For someone~~ to stop smoking is difficult.
> ~~For us~~ to be on time is important.

The it transformation is usually applied to sentences like the last one above:

> (For us) to be on time is important. ⇒
> It is important (for us) to be on time.

**PRACTICE**

Apply the it transformation to the following sentences and enclose in parentheses any for + NP which may or must be deleted.

> Example:
>
> For anyone to learn this process takes a long time. ⇒
>
> It takes a long time (for anyone) to learn this process.

1. For people to argue about this subject seems useless.
2. For us to blame Susan is unfair.
3. For anyone to lose sight of the real problem is easy.
4. For someone to tell the truth sometimes takes courage.
5. For us to be happy about the outcome was impossible.

NOTE: The teacher may choose to bring in at this point the use of the for ... to construction as a sentence modifier:

(In order) for the plan to succeed, everyone must cooperate.

Mr. Simpson came to Miami (in order) ~~for-him~~ to visit his mother.

### THE ing FORM AS NP SUBSTITUTE

Another construction which can function in a NP position is the ing form or ing phrase.

> John's winning the contest was a triumph for his mother.

The underlined construction is derived in this way:

John + tense + win + the + contest
  John + poss. + ing + win + the + contest
  John's winning the contest

The rule for the transformation of the insert is called T- poss. + ing:

### Rule

NP + tense + X ⟹ NP + poss. + ing + X

### PRACTICE

Apply T- poss. + ing to the insert and write the result sentence. Identify the ing phrase in the result sentence as subject, object of a verb, object of a preposition, or complement.

Example:
Insert: They + tense + leave the party.
Matrix: There was a disagreement over + NP.
Result: There was a disagreement over their leaving the party.
(Object of perposition over)

1. Insert: He + tense + go to college.
   Matrix: NP + was the subject of the conversation.

2. Insert: Jim + tense + give the answer.
   Matrix: The teacher insisted on + NP.

3. Insert: He + tense + find a job.
   Matrix: The solution would be + NP.

4. Insert: The senator + tense + use his influence in the case.
   Matrix: The paper reported + NP.

5. Insert: He + tense + leave for Vietnam.
   Matrix: We were upset about + NP.

6. Insert: I + tense + be + truant.
   Matrix: NP + annoyed my parents.

Deletion of NP + poss. is optional in some cases and obligatory in others.

~~People's~~ feeding the elephant is forbidden.
~~My~~ confiding in my friend was a mistake.
Tommy regretted ~~Tommy's~~ leaving his dog behind.
~~Anyone's~~ fishing on the bridge is forbidden.

## COMPOUND STRUCTURES

### CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are words which are used to join like elements in a sentence. The conjunctions are

and    or    for
but    nor    yet

John is interested in science. } ⟹
Bob is interested in science.
John and Bob are interested in science.

Since the two sentences above have the same predicate, they can be transformed into one sentence by joining the two subjects with and.

When and joins two subjects, the verb is plural. The conjunction or implies a choice and does not make two singular subjects plural.

John is going to come. } ⟶
Bob is going to come. } ⟶
John or Bob *is* going to come.

## CORRELATIVES

The correlatives are also used to coordinate like elements. The correlatives are the following pairs:

both ----------- and
not ----------- but
either ----------- or
neither ----------- nor

*Both* John *and* Bob are interested in science.
*Either* John *or* Bob is going to come.
*Neither* the teacher *nor* the students were happy about the situation.

NOTE: Instruction and practice in verb agreement with compound subjects could follow at this point if diagnostic testing indicates the need.

## COMPOUND SENTENCES

Any of the conjunctions and correlatives can be used to join two sentence patterns to form a compound sentence.

1. *And* indicates that the second clause adds an idea to the first.
2. *But* and *yet* indicate a contrast in ideas between the two clauses.
3. *Or* indicates a choice of ideas.
4. *Nor* makes both alternatives negative.
5. *For* indicates that the second clause gives a reason for the first.
6. *So* indicates that the second clause gives the result of the first.

The difference between the conjunction *for* and the subordinator *because* is a matter of sentence structure, not meaning. A clause beginning with *because* can come either before or after the matrix, while the conjunction *for* must come between the two sentences being joined.

> He finally came home because he was hungry.
> Because he was hungry, he finally came home.
> He finally came home, for he was hungry.

The clause for he was hungry in the third example cannot be moved to a position before the other clause.

**Punctuation**

In these compound sentences the conjunction is usually preceded by a comma.

> Once my physical disability used to bother me, but it doesn't any more.
>
> I wasn't quite ready to believe that, yet in the years since then I have discovered and rediscovered the truth many times.

If the two clauses are short and closely related, the comma is often omitted.

> I called but no one answered.
>
> His father is Greek and his mother is Italian.

A semicolon is often used before a conjunction when either clause is long and contains commas within it.

> News Magazine contains a good story about James Bruce, who has been in Africa with the Peace Corps; but the article does not give the details about his age, education, and background which we need for our report.

We have learned that we can transform two sentence patterns into a compound sentence by joining them with one of the conjunctions and, but, or, nor, for, so, and yet.

> John has excellent study habits, so he usually gets very good grades.

Notice that the two clauses cannot be changed in order and that the conjunction so cannot be moved to different positions within the sentence. This is characteristic of the way conjunctions work.

Another kind of compound sentence can be formed by joining two closely related sentence patterns without using a conjunction or other connecting word. In this case a semicolon is ordinarily used between the two parts.

Only a log fire lighted the inside;
no windows were cut in the cabin.
The forest seemed interminable;
nowhere did he discover a break in it.

Sometimes a connector is used in the second clause. Connectors are words like therefore, however, moreover. A characteristic of this class of words is that they can move to different positions within the clause. Notice the possible changes in the position of the connector however in the following sentence:

It was a valuable property on Main
Street; however, the house was very old.
; the house, however, was very old.
; the house was, however, very old.
; the house was very old, however.

Here is a list of some common connectors along with the meaning which they indicate:

Result of First Idea

therefore
hence
thus
consequently
accordingly

Contrast to First Idea

however
nevertheless
nonetheless

Enlarging on First Idea

in fact
in addition
furthermore
indeed
moreover
besides

Connectors are often, but not always, set off from the rest of the clause by the use of commas. Reading the sentence aloud will aid in determining the punctuation. Notice the difference between these two sentences in intonation and punctuation:

The building did not pass inspection;
therefore it was condemned.

The building did not pass inspection;
however, it is still in use as a
recreation center.

**PRACTICE**

Rewrite the following sentences, replacing the conjunction with a connector and changing the punctuation accordingly. Then rewrite it again, moving the connector to a different position.

1. It was rather late to start for the beach, and the papers had predicted rain.

2. Tom has to mow the lawn every Saturday, but he still finds enough time for sports and other recreation.

3. The enemy launched an unexpected offensive, so the general was forced to send reinforcements.

4. Newspaper predictions about the success of the team had been optimistic, yet the coach was gloomy about the chances of winning the tournament.

5. Nobody wanted to tell the news to Mrs. Zink, but we all felt that she ought to know about it.

6. The scores on the standardized test are below average, so a determined effort is being made to improve the program.

7. Mr. Brown has been ill frequently this past year, and he is not getting any younger.

8. The situation was becoming extremely serious, so a meeting of the executive committee was called for the next day.

**SUBDIVISIONS OF $V_I$ AND $V_T$**

The rules for the subdivisions of $V_I$ and $V_T$ may seem unnecessarily complicated. Obviously, in speaking no one consciously goes through all the different steps in sentence transformation which we have described. However, an understanding of the underlying structure may keep us from constructing ungrammatical sentences.

In addition, we can see that our grammar is a system, that there is a certain regularity underlying various structures. Little actually is known about how man learns to speak and understand very complicated sentences, but this underlying regularity must be a factor. Perhaps within your lifetime scientists will know more about how man learns to communicate with language.

We have already studied in some detail the rule for verbal:

$$\text{verbal} \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_I \\ V_T + NP \end{array} \right\} + (\text{Adv-m}) \\ V_s + \text{Adj} \\ V_b + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} NP \\ \text{Adj} \end{array} \right\} + (\text{Adv-p}) \\ \text{V-mid} + NP \end{array} \right\} + (\text{Adv-f}) + (\text{Adv-t})$$

$$V_I \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} V_i\text{-}1 & \text{He arrived.} \\ V_i\text{-}2 + \text{particle} & \text{He drove up.} \\ V_i\text{-}3 + \text{complement} & \text{He went to Chicago.} \end{array} \right.$$

$$V_T \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} V_t\text{-}1 & \text{He dropped (the book).} \\ V_t\text{-}2 + \text{particle} & \text{He looked up (the number).} \\ & \text{He looked (the number) up.} \\ V_t\text{-}3 + \text{complement} & \text{He left (the paper) in the desk.} \\ & \text{He considers (Tom)} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a genius} \\ \text{intelligent.} \end{array} \right. \\ & \text{The class elected (Tom) president.} \\ V_t\text{-}4 + \text{to} + NP & \text{Tom gave (to) Susan (a ring).} \\ V_t\text{-}5 + \text{ing} + \text{compl.} & \text{He heard (Tom) leaving.} \\ V_t\text{-}6 + \text{to} + \text{compl.} & \text{He persuaded (Tom) to go.} \end{array} \right.$$

$V_I$ can be subdivided into three kinds of verb phrases. The symbols for the subdivisions are indicated with a small letter *i*.

$V_i$-1

$V_i$-1 consists of an intransitive verb only.

He left.

$V_i$-2 + particle

$V_i$-2 + particle is a two-part intransitive verb in which the verb cannot occur in the verb phrase without the particle or some other structure. Particles are words like *up*, *in*, *out*, and *over*, many of which can also be used as prepositions.

He glanced *up*. (particle)
He glanced *up* the street. (preposition)

Often a $V_i$-2 + particle has a meaning which is completely unrelated to the meanings of the separate words. In the sentence "*A neighbor dropped in*," the combination *dropped in* does not have the meaning usually associated with the verb *dropped*.

$V_i$-3 + complement

The complement in $V_i$-3 + complement is an adverbial of place:

He glanced *up the street*.

$V_t$-1

$V_T$ has six subdivisions. $V_t$-1 is the single-word verb which has an object.

The crowd watched the speaker.

$V_t$-2

Here is an example of the second type of transitive verb, $V_t$-2 + particle:

Henry *looked up* the word.

The noun phrase *the word* is the object of *looked up*, not of *looked*.

The $V_t$-2 + particle is sometimes called a separable verb because the particle can be separated from the verb by the object.

Joseph called up his girlfriend. ⟹
Joseph called his girlfriend up.

If the object of a separable verb is a personal pronoun, it must come before the particle.

Joseph called her up.

Another characteristic of the separable verb is that the particle stays with the verb in the passive transformation.

The company turned off the water. ⇒
The water was turned off by the company.

### PRACTICE

By testing to determine whether the position of the particle and object can be reversed, determine whether the verb phrase in each sentence is an example of $V_t$-2 + particle or of $V_i$-3 + complement (Adv-p).

1. The boys ate up all the steak.
2. The baby turned on the heater.
3. He turned around the chair.
4. The car turned around the corner.
5. I turned in the assignment.
6. Look over your paper for mistakes.
7. The ball went over the fence.
8. A new man took over the job.
9. The police picked up the thief.
10. We climbed up the hill.

### $V_t$-3 + complement

One kind of complement following a $V_t$-3 is an adverbial of place:

He parked the car in the driveway.

In this sentence parked in the driveway is the $V_T$ and the car is the noun phrase object.

He parked in the driveway the car. ⇒
He parked the car in the driveway.

A second kind of $V_t$-3 verb is the consider type:

The boys considered the speech a bore. ⇒
The boys considered the speech boring.

The complement after a verb like consider can be either a noun phrase or an adjective.

Other verbs, like elect, can be followed by a noun phrase as complement, but not by an adjective.

The class elected Tom president.

In these sentences the $V_T$ consists of verb + complement.

The class elected president Tom.
The boys considered a bore the speech.
The boys considered boring the speech.

### $V_t$-4 + to + NP

$V_t$-4 is a verb like give, which can be followed by two noun phrases, the first called the indirect object and the second the direct object:

The club gave John an award.

Indirect object sentences can be derived in this way:

The club gave an award to John. ⟹
The club gave John an award.

The preposition to is deleted, and the noun phrase John is moved to a position before the direct object an award. John is now called the indirect object.

Noun phrases after for and of can also sometimes be transformed into indirect objects:

Tom built a hut for the children. ⟹
Tom built the children a hut.

The teacher asked a question of Tom. ⟹
The teacher asked Tom a question.

### PASSIVE

The subdivisions of $V_T$ which have been presented are transformed to the passive according to this rule:

$$NP_1 + Aux + V_T + NP \Longrightarrow NP_2 + Aux + be + part. + V_T + (by + NP_1)$$

$V_t$-1
Jimmy broke the window. ⟹
The window was broken by Jimmy.

$V_t$-2 + particle
The police locked up the rioters. ⟹
The rioters were locked up by the police.

$V_t$-3 + complement

Dean drove the car to the garage. ⟹
The car was driven to the garage by Dean.

The students consider Mr. Glenn a good coach. ⟹
Mr. Glenn is considered a good coach by the students.

A sentence with $V_t$-3 + to + NP can be made passive in two different ways. Either the indirect object or the direct object may become the subject of the passive construction.

The club gave John an award. ⟹
John was given an award by the club.
or
An award was given (to) John by the club.

However, the passive derived from a sentence with for retains the for:

A hut was built for the children by Tom.

**$V_t$-5 + ing + complement**

A $V_t$-5 is a verb like hear in the sentence "We heard Jim leaving." This again is a double-base transformation, since we and heard have a subject-predicate relationship, as do Jim and leaving. The insert string is "Jim + aux + leave."

Insert: Jim left.
Matrix: We heard + complement + Jim.
Result: We heard Jim leaving.

**PRACTICE**

Write the insert sentence for the following:

1. I saw Carol walking the dog.
   Insert: Carol walked the dog.
2. The teacher noticed Susie writing a note.
3. The coach caught the boys smoking in the locker room.
4. She found Jonathon washing dishes in a restaurant.
5. We heard the boys laughing boisterously.

Sometimes the subject of both the insert and matrix is the same, with the following result:

Insert: He + ate + too + much
Matrix: He + found + complement + himself
Result: He found himself eating too much.

### $V_t$-6 + to + complement

A $V_t$-6 is a verb like persuade in the sentence "The girls persuaded John to go home." The insert is "John + Aux + go home."

Both $V_t$-5 + $V_t$-6 sentences may be made passive:

The coach caught the boys smoking. ⟹
The boys were caught smoking by the coach.

The girls persuaded John to go home. ⟹
John was persuaded to go home by the girls.

### PRACTICE

Write five sentences with $V_t$-6 + to + complement, using such verbs as urge, persuade, teach, require, tell, and order. Then transform each sentence to the passive.

### SOME KINDS OF PRACTICE EXERCISES FOR STUDENTS

1. From which kernel sentences would these two sentences have been derived?

   The man was shot by the police station. (Someone shot the man by the police station.)

   The man was shot by the policeman. (The policeman shot the man.)

2. Rewrite the following story in longer, more effective sentences:

   Echo was a nymph. She was beautiful. She was very talkative. She displeased Juno. Juno was the wife of Jupiter. Jupiter was king of the gods. Juno punished Echo. She could not speak. She could only repeat the last words which someone said.

A handsome youth came into the forest. His name was Narcissus. He was hunting. The nymphs admired him. He scorned them. Echo fell in love with him. He met her one day. He spoke to her. She always repeated his last words. He grew angry. He left her. She pined away. Only her voice was left. It still repeats the last words someone says.

Narcissus came to a pool. He saw his reflection in the pool. He fell in love with his reflection. He became very unhappy. He died. The nymphs buried his body by the pool. A beautiful flower grew up there. The flower was white. The flower was named the narcissus.

3. In the group of sentences below, you have a matrix sentence and several insert sentences. You are to transform the insert sentences into modifiers of noun phrases in the matrix.

   Main clause: The president has vetoed the proposal.

   Inserts: The president is newly elected.
   He is president of the student body.
   The proposal is rather strange.
   The proposal was introduced by one of the students.

4. The following is an example of poor use of noun modifiers. Rewrite the sentence in a more effective form.

   Bob has a new car which is a Corvette which was given to him by his aunt who is a very wealthy woman.

5. Change the sentence in order to avoid the ambiguity.

   The woman carrying a suitcase with a blue hat is my aunt.

   She was the girl at the movie that reminded me of Aunt Sally.

NOTE: Since there is evidence that the ability to use an increased number of noun modifiers is one sign of maturity in writing, there would seem to be a strong possibility that practice in writing exercises of the preceding types might help to improve the writing of sentences.

6. From what kernel sentences do you think the following noun-noun combinations may be derived?

   kitchen sink
   turkey drumstick
   beauty shop
   radio announcer
   sports announcer
   algebra book
   storm shutter

7. Think of examples of noun modifiers like the underlined transforms:

   the monster has one eye ⇛
   the one-eyed monster

   the bird has long legs ⇛
   the long-legged bird

   the athlete has broad shoulders ⇛
   the broad-shouldered athlete

8. Write examples like the underlined noun modifiers derived from passive transforms. Try to use some alliteration.

   the sea was tossed by the storm ⇛
   the storm-tossed sea

   her hands were worn by work ⇛
   her work-worn hands

   her hair was bleached by the sun ⇛
   her sun-bleached hair

9. From what sentences were the following noun phrases from The Odyssey derived?

   rosy-fingered Dawn
   deep-voiced Amphitrite
   dark-prowed ship
   fair-tressed goddess
   sad-hearted Odysseus
   sun-dried onion

SUGGESTED MATERIAL
FOR TEACHER
REFERENCE

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NOTE: English Syntax and Modern English Sentence Structure are programmed texts. New Dimensions in English is state-adopted for the senior high school level.

## WRITTEN COMPOSITION

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# INTRODUCTION

## COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVE WRITING

### BETTER THINKING

Writing should teach students to think clearly. There should be exercises in basic thought processes resulting in critical judgment.

### BETTER READING

Writing should help students develop reading skills in comprehension and appreciation.

### INSIGHT TO SELF

Writing should help students develop the ability to interpret and evaluate themselves and others, various viewpoints and ideas, and experiences and situations.

### EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Writing should teach students to appreciate levels of language: to use words and sentences which fit the time, place, and situation.

## SEQUENCE OF A GOOD WRITING PROGRAM

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| WORD RHETORIC | Descriptive words for precision<br>More specific action words<br>Errors with action words<br>Modifiers in sentences | |
| SENTENCE RHETORIC | Sentence beginnings<br>Sentence patterns in a series of sequential exercises | |
| THOUGHT PROCESSES | Observation<br>Classification<br>Definition<br>Illustration | Comparison and Contrast<br>Analysis |
| PRINCIPLES OF RHETORIC | Invention<br>Logical Ordering<br>Strategy | |

# WORD RHETORIC

## INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITIES

Present a selection of highly descriptive writing and help students discover the words which make effective description.

Example: The schoolhouse in "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow"

"His schoolhouse was a low building of one large room, rudely constructed of logs; the windows partly glazed, and partly patched with leaves of old copy-books. It stood in a rather lonely but pleasant situation, just at the foot of a woody hill, with a brook running close by, and a formidable birch tree growing at one end of it. From hence the low murmur of his pupils' voices, conning over their lessons, might be heard in a drowsy summer's day, like the hum of a beehive; interrupted now and then by the authoritative voice of the master, in the tone of menace or command; or, perhaps by the appalling sound of the birch, as he urged some tardy loiterer along the flowery path of knowledge. Truth to say, he was a conscientious man, and ever bore in mind the golden maxim, 'Spare the rod and spoil the child.' Ichabod Crane's scholars certainly were not spoiled."

Other examples:

The shark, from The Old Man and the Sea.

Killing of the shark, from "Ghost of the Lagoon," p. 413, Adventures for Readers, Book I.

Ichabod Crane, from "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow," pp. 390-391, Adventures for Readers, Book II.

The fight, from "The Thread That Runs So True," p. 349, Adventures in Reading.

### ADDITIONAL MOTIVATION

Present a simple pantomime. (Teacher walks to the window, adjusts shade, sharpens pencil, and sits at desk.) Direct students to write a one sentence description of what they saw. Discuss the effectiveness of their sentences.

### PRACTICE

Show magazine covers or other pictures showing people in familiar activities. Direct students to list ten words to describe some of the people they see. Discuss general as opposed to specific descriptions.

### ASSIGNMENT

Bring a news item with effective words circled, or write down descriptive words used in a radio or television commercial.

### SPECIFIC DESCRIPTIVE WORDS

Have students substitute a more specific word for the underlined words in the following sentences, and if necessary, add words to improve effectiveness. (Students may use dictionaries.)

1. We had a nice time at the game.
2. Visiting New York City was a fine experience.
3. The basketball players looked tired when they got home.
4. Sharon is a pretty girl.
5. I felt bad when I heard the news.
6. Big waves splashed against the rocks.
7. The green light moving in the dark made a strange effect.
8. It was an odd looking animal.
9. Her dress was awful.
10. Joe is a good-looking boy.
11. That was a neat trick.
12. It's been a swell party.

### DISCUSSION

Point out differences between slang words that students might use and standard English words. When is slang appropriate or effective? When is it not?

**SPECIFIC ACTION WORDS**

List some common verbs and have students substitute specific synonyms and use in short sentences.

1. ran (galloped, sprinted, loped)
2. sat (slumped, reclined)
3. jumped (leaped, hurdled)
4. walked (skulked, strode)
5. threw (hurled, flung, tossed)
6. drank (gulped, sipped)
7. chewed (crunched, gnawed)
8. looked (stared, gazed)
9. said (exclaimed, repeated, shouted, replied)
10. went (raced, sauntered, glided)

**ASSIGNMENT**

Have students find good examples of specific action words in printed sources. For example:

The car screeched (not came) to a stop.
The dog loped (not ran) across the field.
The man slumped (not sat) in the chair.

**AVOID ERRORS WITH ACTION WORDS**

Practice good verb usage by working with troublesome verbs. Reinforce by using oral drill.

**MODIFIERS IN SENTENCES**

Give students practice in applying modifiers to sentences. Instruct students to select vivid and effective modifiers. Draw attention to alternate position of second modifier. Suggested types of sentences with possible student answers:

1. Bill worked.
   (Poor Bill worked hard.)
   (Enraged, Bill worked furiously.)
2. The president rose.
   (The tall president rose easily.)
3. A dog barked.
   (A small dog barked excitedly.)
4. The light shone.
   (The green light shone brightly.)
5. The girl laughed.
   (The nervous girl laughed hysterically.)

# SENTENCE RHETORIC

## SENTENCE BEGINNINGS

### SIMPLE MODIFIER

Present student with a list of simple modifiers to be used as the first word of the sentence.

Example: Later Donna spoke.
Quickly Francis replied.

### SIMPLE PHRASE

List simple adverbial phrases to be used as the first part of a sentence.

Example: On the rock, (the sea gull sat silently... etc.)

By the car...
Across the street...
Above the trees...
Beyond his reach...
Under the saddle...
Beneath the stone...
Back at the ranch...
During the night...

Have students reverse their sentences and decide which order is more effective.

### MULTIPLE PHRASES

Double the adverbial phrases.

Example: In the tree, on the topmost branch, (a wild turkey sat.)

On the roof, behind the chimney...

Near the school, at the bicycle rack...

Down the road, at the corner...

## EXPANDING SENTENCES

The following exercises are sequentially arranged, beginning with the simplest and progressing to the most sophisticated. Most classes will be able to complete the first five or six.

## APPOSITIVE SYNONYM

Introduce the appositive modifier as the synonym which immediately follows the subject.

Example: His newest friend John went to the game with him.

The major-domo, or headwaiter, looked at them suspiciously.

Continue by having the students place a definer after the subject:

Her angry parent stormed out of the house.

(Her angry parent, her father, stormed out of the house.)

## APPOSITIVE MODIFIERS

1. Similar to the type of appositive used above is the group of words, or phrase, which modifies or identifies the subject.

   Example: My mother, the lady in black, sat at the back of the room.

   My English book, the red book, is on the top shelf.

2. Continue this principle by using this kind of construction after any noun in the sentence.

   Example: Mantle held the bat, his specially made one, loosely in his hands.

   The squirrel ran up the tree, the tall maple tree at the end of the driveway.

3. Vary this principle by repeating the subject and adding modifiers to the appositive.

   Example: The cat, (a young and foolish cat)... bit the balloon.

   The car, an old and battered car, roared down the street.

   The tree, an ancient and twisted oak, was black with rain. (Note substitution of oak for tree.)

   The man, an old and bearded sailor, turned in at the doorway.

   The team, ___________ group, trudged into the locker room.

4. A more difficult kind of exercise is one in which the student supplies the entire appositive.

   Example: The restaurant, (a dark and smoky place), did not appeal to him.

   Give students sentences leaving room for appositives. Have students write the sentences, filling in the appositives that supply descriptive details.

Example: In the room, ____________,
the teacher paced back and forth.

The stadium, ____________,
frightened her.

The policeman, ____________,
walked toward him.

(Note: It may be wise here to review the different kinds of appositive patterns before going on to other elements.)

### SEVERAL MODIFIERS

Ask students to supply two, three, or more modifying words before nouns.

Example: The big, rangy, yellow dog
growled threateningly.

### SIMPLE PHRASES

Show how prepositional phrases can be used after nouns. Again, it is not necessary to use the term prepositional phrases; say "this kind of construction" or "word group."

Example: The man with the beard stood up.
The girl in the white dress gave a report.
The book on the table is the one he had lost.

Continue the exercise by adding phrases to other parts of the sentence (direct object, predicate nominative, etc.).

### MODIFIERS AND PHRASES

Combine practice with single word modifiers before the subject with phrases after the subject:

The pale girl in the white dress gave a report.
The tall cowboy with the black hat drew his gun.

## CONSOLIDATION OF PHRASES

(Optional with able students)
Introduce practice in converting phrase modifiers to single-word modifiers to go before the subject.

Convert - The boy with the rosy cheeks
hit the dog.
To - The rosy-cheeked boy hit the dog.
(Obviously this will not work with all modifiers.)

## MOVABLE PHRASES

Show how single-word adverbs or adverbial phrases may be moved from the beginning to the middle or the end of the sentence.

Example: Swiftly he dropped the gun.
He swiftly dropped the gun.
He dropped the gun swiftly.

## ADDING GROUPS OF WORDS

Ask students to expand sentences by adding groups of words like the following (participles):

The cat walked on, stepping carefully past the mud puddles.

The man read slowly, examining every idea.

The rocket exploded, creating brilliant patterns in the sky.

## RELATIVE CLAUSES

Ask students to expand basic sentences by modifying the subject with groups of words beginning with:

who, whom, whose, that, which

Example: The center, who was...,
tried a hook shot.

Jim, whose hobby is...,
won the prize.

Eventually the student should be able to supply the entire clause.

MOVABLE CLAUSES

Have students rewrite sentences to emphasize the mobility of some clauses.

Example: When the principal bent over to pick up the paper, he lost his wig.

The principal lost his wig when he bent over to pick up the paper.

# BASIC THOUGHT PROCESSES

## OBSERVATION

### SIGHT OBSERVATION

Show a picture. Have students study it. Remove picture and have students list items they remember.

Show the students a pantomime. (The teacher closes the door, looks around the room, opens a drawer, pulls out an object, etc.) Students should list what they saw, in the order that they saw it. Compare answers. Was the order correct? Were some students more graphic than others? Read Brooke's "The Great Lover," etc. Ask the students what the speaker (Brooke) remembers...(sounds, sights, the speaker's values). Have students list five objects each likes, explaining why and using details for the explanation.

Show odd tool. Have students describe it (orally or on paper).

Take a walk around the school. List what was observed.

### SENSORY IMPRESSION

Use familiar experiences to show the significance of sensory impressions.

Example: Helen Keller's The Loveliness of Things.

What senses are used? What objects are mentioned? Was it written by a man or a woman. How can you tell?

## DEFINITION

Give students exercises to create definitions.

Example: A steamship is ________.

A steamship is a vessel which ________.

Develop in the student the practice of putting things into classes and further differentiating from others of the same class.

Give students exercises to test definitions (especially their own).

1. By reversal:
   A slave is the human property of another.
   Human property of another is a slave.

Point out to students that when the definition is too general it cannot be reversed...

An orange is a fruit.

A dog is an animal.

2. By substitution:
   To be a slave is a fate worse than death.
   To be the human property of another is a fate worse than death.

## CLASSIFICATION

Have students decide what is common to all books, using such examples as a novel, a dictionary, a handbook, checkbook, stampbook.

Repeat exercise using pins: safety pin, straight pin, hat pin, tie pin, etc.

Give exercises showing specifics from which students are to make generalizations.

Example: apple, orange, peach,
pear = fruit

fear, anger, hatred,
love = emotion

Confucianism, Buddhism,
Taoism, Christianity = religion

dogs, cats, trees, human beings
= living things

## ILLUSTRATION

Note: It is generally easier to work with concrete rather than abstract models.

1. Describe a boy or girl in the room in relation to size, coloring, manner, clothing, etc.
2. Have students describe the position of something.

   Example: a classmate who is standing with two others at the front of the room. Where is the student? What occurs around him?

3. Use a particular to explain a class. Have students select a doctor or teacher **they know and list qualities** that person has which are common to others in his field.

   Dr. ________ is typical of most doctors, because ______________.

   In a typical student council meeting ______________________.

## COMPARISON AND CONTRAST

The purpose of the skill is to give information about one thing in relation to another.

Compare likenesses: a horse to a zebra.

Example: A zebra is like a horse in form.

Contrast differences: The zebra is striped and smaller than the horse.

Key words for comparison and contrast:

but
and
just as
on the other hand
in spite of this
nevertheless
however
both
each
too
also

## ANALYSIS

Take an object, an idea, or an act and treat it in relation to its parts.

Example: Analyze an idea or opinion.
What assumptions led to the idea?
How did you get it?
When did you get it?
Where did you get it?
Why do you believe it?
(Note: this should show a student whether his viewpoint can be defended by fact or opinion.)

Analyze an object.
What is it called?
What is its function?
What color is it?
What shape is it?
How large is it?
How heavy is it?
Of what is it made?
How old is it?

# PRINCIPLES OF RHETORIC

**INVENTION**

The major emphasis of any writing assignment is the pre-writing phase where motivating, exploring, and generating ideas take place. The student proceeds from the general to the specific by which he finds his own slant. Example: School Spirit.

**CLASS DISCUSSION**

Together, the class discusses the topic. Take a slant or position: "School spirit doesn't matter." "There's not enough school spirit."

**MODELS**

Show two models: one with a definite point of view and one without it.

No Obvious Point of View

> School spirit is the respect and loyalty a student feels toward his school. School spirit is important if the school is to be a good one. Most students have mixed feelings about their school, but generally they can truthfully say they like their school, and they have good school spirit.

Definite Point of View

> We have great school spirit at City High School. Our games and dances are sell-outs, and most of the extra activities are highly successful. Our teachers and students respect and admire each other, and there is a sense of friendliness throughout the school. Ask anyone in the school what is the greatest school in the world; the answer will always be City High School.

**LIVE INTERVIEW**

For the interview have either two students involved or a student and the teacher.

| | |
|---|---|
| PROPOSITION | Show a proposition from which faulty conclusions could be drawn.<br>Example: We have 100% attendance at all events. (Therefore we have excellent school spirit.) |
| CARTOON | Show a cartoon whose humor involves certain faulty assumptions and have students analyze cooperatively.<br>Example: women drivers, mother-in-law, nagging wife, Dennis-the-Menace. |
| LOGICAL ORDERING | In expository writing two general patterns of presentation are inductive (specific to general) and deductive (general to specific) reasoning. |
| THREE KINDS OF STATEMENTS | Student must be aware of three kinds of statements:<br>1. Fact<br>Example: There are 25 in this room.<br>2. Opinion<br>Example: This class is interesting.<br>3. Normative (fall between facts and opinions; need to be clarified by definition or statistics.)<br>Example: Most people think ..... |
| THREE KINDS OF QUESTIONS | Students must also be aware of three kinds of questions:<br>1. Scientific - may be answered immediately or are ultimately verifiable.<br>Example: Were human beings two inches shorter in 1940?<br>2. Exploratory - lead to discussion and stimulate research or thinking, although the questions are not actually verifiable.<br>Example: Will human beings be six inches taller twenty-five years from today?<br>3. Pointless - are useless because they are incapable of being answered.<br>Example: Will the world end in 2200? |

### GENERALIZATIONS

In using degrees of generalization, the following should serve as a guide: What degree of generalization is appropriate in any given situation? The reasoning must be tested by searching for examples where it does not hold. For example, "Willie Mays nearly always gets a hit." (A batting average of .035, while praiseworthy, means 3 1/2 hits out of every 10 times at bat. "Nearly always" is an inaccurate degree of generalization.)

### CLASSIFICATION OF EVIDENCE

The following evidence may be used to support assertions or generalizations. Students should be able to identify and recognize these.

1. Primary sources - are dependent upon first-hand knowledge or observation.

2. Reports of others - are based on dependability of source of the report. Could the person reporting have gathered the data? Who is he? What does he represent?

3. Common knowledge - is treacherous but widespread; it is necessary to evaluate the actual basis for persistent belief. Beware of stereotyping, (Redheads have quick tempers). However, the Japanese are nearsighted, and mosquitoes abound in wet regions.

### SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

**Statements**

Which are generalizations? Why?

1. 40% of all Scandinavians have blond hair.
2. A bird is a winged, feathered animal having two feet, claws, and a beak.
3. Violets bloom best in a window with northern exposure.
4. Minor politicians get good jobs because they support the candidate.

5. Water freezes at $32^\circ$ F.
6. If teenagers eat rich food, they will have bad complexions.
7. Ford cars are made by the Ford Motor Company.
8. Insurance rates for women are lower.
9. Every action must have an opposite and equal reaction.
10. Labor unions want higher wages for their members.
11. Teenagers become delinquents because they can't get jobs.

Put on board a sample generalization:

The average teen smokes a pack of cigarettes a day.

**Sample** questions that will test generalization.

1. What prediction can you make from this generalization? (Most teens I meet will smoke.)
2. How do you arrive at an average? (Students will point out the way of doing this mathematically.)
3. How was this generalization arrived at? (Inaccurate sample of teens was used.)

Cartoons

Use cartoons that show generalizations. Ask: From what generalization does the cartoon get its humor? Test generalizations through questions.

Advertisements

What generalization does the advertisement illustrate? What can be predicted from it? Is this an accurate prediction?

Example: Pepsi advertisement - If a person drinks Pepsi, will he automatically "come alive" and be young again?

Note: For additional class discussion on generalization and advertising, use material from The Hidden Persuaders, by Vance Packard, David McKay Company, Inc., 1957.

**Editorials**

Question the generalizations of an editorial.

Example: "You Can Buy Happiness" by Art Buchwald

Question:

1. What popularly believed generalization is the author trying to disprove?
2. Does he do it inductively or deductively?
3. What happens when an author discusses people or situations based on the popular generalization on which he is trying to cast doubt?

**Two Models**

Use two models of generalizations, propaganda, slanted writing, and faulty assumptions.

Example: "Teen-Age Corruption" by Mentor*

"A Threat to Our Ideals" by Deuteronomy*

Questions:

1. Which essay uses propaganda techniques more obviously?
2. Which one offers more support for its opening argument?
3. How does the author in "A Threat to Our Ideals" attack those who say teen-agers aren't so bad? (See paragraph five.) How does this compare with the similar attack in "Teen-Age Corruption"? (See paragraph three.)
4. Would the persuasiveness of the two articles be the same to all people?
5. How would they differ?

# TEEN-AGE CORRUPTION

by Mentor

One day as I was walking through the halls of our school, I saw a young girl standing at her locker swearing quite loudly because her lock was stuck. I walked over to her and asked her if she could refrain from using foul language in the halls. Just as I made my statement, two other students approached and came to the defense of the girl. All three students were obnoxious in their attitude and were in every way disrespectful. It is this kind of disrespect, foul language, and cliquishness that typifies the low moral tone of the teen-agers today.

Teen-agers are probably the most corrupt segment existing in our society. Most of this corruption is due to the fact that spineless, ill-informed, and irresponsible adults who pretend to be educated coddle these sickening children. In our schools, churches, homes, courts, and businesses, so-called well-meaning idiots say that teen-agers must have a chance at free expression and must be dealt with kindly because they are going through a difficult period of life. They say teen-agers are socially maladjusted because of problems that disturbed these children when they were infants and because our world is insecure. These statements are rubbish.

Teen-agers must be dealt with in the same fashion as any other criminal or immoral group in our society. They must be shown firmness and must be shown that our democratic society will not tolerate their corruption. We must not try simply to understand them, but must deal with them swiftly and efficiently. Psychologists, such as E. P. Thompson of the Committee for Teen-age Guidance, state that teen-agers are basically moral and that the crime and immorality that they demonstrate is but an expression of their insecurity. Mr. Thompson had better wake up. His statement is completely false because he follows the policies of a misguided left-wing organization. He is so worried about keeping his job as a psychologist that he cannot face the question directly. He is a poor authority because he has no children who are teen-agers, and he lives in the ivory tower of the academic world. If he would ever leave the confines of his library and walk out into the truth of day, he would see the evil that spreads over our country.

Any human being who loves mankind and dignity, and is able to think objectively, or for that matter, anyone who is able to think at all, can see that teen-agers have reached the lowest ebb of human existence. They are human only in name; they are surely not human in the sense that the great Greek philosophers conceived it.

Teen-agers are like movie sets which look appealing at first glance, but on closer inspection are shallow. Movie sets are highly painted flimsy paper and canvas that change according to the requirements of the show. They are simply trash that have no real value but impress many by their glitter. It is only when we see the real thing that we are disgusted with movie sets. With these things in mind we can see what teen-agers really are like.

The real shame is that the violence exhibited by teen-agers turns our streets into a paradise for evil. Our older citizens are afraid to walk the streets at night. Our highways have become the slaughterhouse of the world. We citizens who really care about goodness and love must band together as an immovable unit to force teen-agers back into the mold that their Creator established for them. We must move before it is too late. We cannot stand by while our world falls into oblivion.

## A THREAT TO OUR IDEALS

by Deuteronomy

Every society that man has created has been dependent upon its young people to carry on its ideals and culture. Our society is not different from those that have existed before. Our society, which believes in the dignity of the individual, the betterment of the human race, and the equality of all men, seeks to continue itself so that the world will always have a light of freedom to turn to even in the darkest hours of despair. If we are to give this light to the future generations of the world, we must concentrate our attention on our teen-agers, who will be responsible for carrying this light and passing it on to those who follow them.

I fear our task is a difficult one, because our teen-agers seem to have lost many of the ideals that are so sacred to human dignity. On January 28, 1963, a boy of seventeen in a fit of anger shot and killed his mother, father, and two older sisters. When asked later if he regretted his deed, he answered, "No, they deserved what they got. They weren't any damn good." The following day a boy and a girl, both fifteen, were arrested in the act of burglarizing a store. When the police questioned them they found out that these two teen-agers were responsible for forty-seven other burglaries that had been committed in a two year period. A week later the Cleveland Star carried a story about eight teen-age girls who were members of a high school sorority and who had been prostituting themselves to high school boys and older men in the community. The girls were from good homes, and their parents were generally well educated.

These stories are typical of the behavior of our teen-agers all across the country. Our teen-agers have lost the values of their religious heritage. Teen-agers no longer care for their families, the property of others, or individual morality. They think of little else than having a good time and being well liked.

If we look objectively at teen-age dances, we can see the weakening of the moral fibers that make our country what it is today. Teen-agers dance in such a way as to arouse primitive passions in each other. They use dance parties as an excuse to drink, smoke, and tell filthy stories. The dances are one of the main causes for the decay of values among our young people. Years ago dances used to be fun because young people gathered to exchange experiences and they were always careful to conduct themselves in morally acceptable ways.

Those days of morality seem to be gone. Many leading men in our country have echoed the same fear. They feel that our teen-agers have lost the way and are incapable of being leaders in our democratic society. These men of dignity and authority have a right to fear because anyone who looks at our teen-agers can see the sad state that they have fallen into.

There are a few misguided individuals in our society who say that the teen-agers of today are no different from those generations that came before. These people say that our teen-agers will grow up in time and that a few mistakes are not enough to give one the right to condemn teen-agers. I believe they are wrong. If we do nothing about an infection, it spreads until it has destroyed the whole organism. Those people who say that juvenile delinquency among teen-agers is just a phase that young people go through are not looking at the facts. They are retreating from reality. They are adults who are unable to realize the threat to morality. They are too concerned about their own little world of today to think about our responsibility to tomorrow. They are sleeping while the wolf waits outside the door.

We, who realize the facts, will not sleep while the wolf devours our society. We will relight the lamp of freedom and insure that the future will have that lamp. The overwhelming corruptness of our young must be dealt with. We will deal with it in the home, in the school, in the church, and in the courts. We will see that tomorrow will not be destroyed today.

*The essays, TEEN-AGE CORRUPTION and A THREAT TO OUR IDEALS, were prepared at the Curriculum Demonstration Center, Euclid Junior High School, Euclid, Ohio, under the direction of Mr. George Hillocks.

## STRATEGY

### VOICE

How does the writer see himself?

Make students aware of the conscious planning of the speaking voice.

Develop exercises in writing as a younger child, an adult, a stranger, a friend, etc. Lead students to see writing as role-playing. Encourage them to assume new roles (as an older person, as an authority figure, as a timid person, etc.) See "Point of View" in this guide.

### TONE

How does the writer see his audience?

Closely related to voice is tone.

Develop exercise in writing to various audiences: younger children, adults, uneducated people, men only, women only, etc.

Give exercises in the following cautions:

Be consistent: changing and shifting tone result in poor writing.

Be personal but not familiar.

Beware of both dogmatism and false modesty.

Do not over-exaggerate.

Avoid sentimentality and gushiness.

Don't be cute.

Don't be more serious than the subject deserves.

Convey tone through use of words, not through devices of punctuation and underlining.

For the elements of style, teachers may wish to see the senior high guide for their own interest; although they will probably not wish to burden junior high school students with these concepts.

## ATTITUDE

How does the writer see his material?

Show the students examples of an author's attitude toward his material. Does the author seem to know all there is to know about the subject? Is the attitude more exploratory and questioning? Is the author sarcastic or contemptuous toward his subject?

Practice: Have student write paragraphs, one in which he is a know-it-all and one in which he knows little.

Example: The teenager who knows everything about skateboarding vs. the teenager who has been an observer only.

Topics: surfing, hot rod, hairdos, fashion.

# ASSIGNMENTS

## ASSIGNMENTS FOR BETTER THINKING

### POINT OF VIEW

Take a school problem from the point of view of:

- parent
- principal
- teacher
- student

Take a family problem from the viewpoint of:

- adolescent
- parent
- social worker

Playing a role in a new situation

Take an automobile accident from these viewpoints:

- arresting officer
- car occupants
- observers

### FORMAL EXPLORATION OF A PROBLEM

List possible angles and approaches to a problem or object. (oral)

Example: Homework problem

Write down some ways of looking at the problem.

Make simple adaptation of Hegelian concept.

Thesis - Honesty pays off.

### CRITICISM

Compare and contrast two short stories.
List main ideas of each and show how they are alike and different.

Watch T.V. Westerns.

What is the formula for typical parts?
(Villain - dirty, dark clothes, dark horse
Hero - white horse, clean clothes)

Reply to an editorial.

Set down main points.
Select points you will cover.

**ASSIGNMENTS FOR BETTER INSIGHT**

**ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES AND EMOTIONS**

Analyze unforgettable personal experience.

Why is an experience illuminating, embarrassing, or memorable?

Use methods of reporting sensory impressions and analyzing parts.

**SELF-ANALYSIS**

Self-biography

Look at self like another person. Write in third person. This should be a short narrative or anecdote from personal experience.

**ASSIGNMENTS FOR BETTER READING**

**MOTIVATION OF IDEAS**

Use a selected work as a motivating device:

Example: "Stopping by Woods"

Topic: Am I enjoying or taking advantage of the simple things?

**PARAPHRASE**

Simple précis or paraphrase

NOTE: Do not overuse in poetry.

**ANALYSIS OF CHARACTER**

Analyze character.
(1) What details, given or implied, are clues to this person's character or behavior?
(2) What is the central quality?
(3) Do the details support this?

**ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOR**

Written analysis of human behavior

Is this act courageous or foolhardy?

**IMITATION**

Japanese *haiku* poetry
Limericks
Dialogue
Myths
Fables
Legends
Tall Tales

Antithesis - Lying may be beneficial sometimes.

Synthesis - White lies are sometimes a (balance) kindness.

Have students practice dialogue which carries out this concept.

**JUDICIAL OPINION**

Example: Facts on hypothetical auto accident are given by the teacher for students to discover who is liable.

**BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH**

Example: Choose an interesting person living or dead. Collect details to write a short sketch which will give a complimentary or derogatory slant to the person. (Use inductive method.)

**INVESTIGATIVE PAPER (OPTIONAL)**

Consult several resources. (Use inductive method.)

(1) Read (come to your own conclusions).
(2) What do you get from each?
(3) Examine statements to be able to put these together in form of conclusion.
    1. Select problem (suggested problem: capital punishment).
    2. Gather data.
    3. Draw conclusion.